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**THE ROLE AND VALUE OF FIELDWORK IN EDUCATION FOR
LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SCIENCE**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF PROFESSOR J G KESTING**

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SUMMARY

An investigation was undertaken into the role and value of fieldwork in professional education for library and information science. Following a literature search, the researcher undertook a philosophical investigation of the educational rationale of fieldwork as it relates to other components of the educational programme.

The second part of the investigation comprised an empirical investigation of the fieldwork programmes at two selected South African universities. Employing a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies, the candidate evaluated the two programmes and, by means of cross-site comparison, attempted to establish common patterns, to account for differences and to construct a model of fieldwork. Findings relating to each programme were reported and conclusions regarding the most important dimensions and positive indicators of effectiveness were made.

PREFACE

The researcher is greatly indebted to the students and staff of both the Library Schools whose fieldwork programmes she evaluated, for their generous co-operation in completing questionnaires, participating in interviews and making available programme documentation. She would like to thank her professional colleagues in the field for completing the questionnaires.

The researcher would like to thank particularly Mr Greg Pastoll of the Teaching Methods Unit of the University of Cape Town for valuable advice in the design and administration of the questionnaires and interview schedules, in evaluation research.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The selection of the research topic of fieldwork was stimulated by a convergence of a number of related factors :

- an interest in the form and structure of professional education fuelled by an increasingly reported concern among library and information professionals about the quality of education for library and information science, and international and local moves toward curriculum revision
- concurrence with the claim frequently expressed that fieldwork is one of the the most distinguishing features of professional education (Cf Dinham & Stritter, 1986)
- the nation-wide survey of library schools and major libraries and information centres undertaken by the Committee of Education and Research (CER) of the South African Institute for Librarianship and Information Science (SAILIS) in 1980 to establish current practice and opinion to assist in the formulation of standards
- an interest in the ways in which students learn, stimulated by innovative research being done in Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States in this respect (Cf Entwistle & Marton, 1984; Marton & Säljö, 1976; Perry, 1970)
- current developments in research into experiential learning, especially in higher education (Chickering, 1977; Keeton et al, 1976; Kolb & Fry, 1975)

These issues can be identified and problematized in the practical component of education for library and information science, viz. fieldwork. The important SAILIS survey resulted in the publication of the *Guidelines for fieldwork* (SAILIS. CER, 1984). The necessary omission of the students' perspective from the SAILIS survey provided an additional stimulus to the researcher's identification of a relatively neglected area in the field of professional education for library and information science.

There has been a great deal of critical attention to and a revival of interest in recent years in the fieldwork programme in the professional literature. This interest has embraced the concern to integrate more effectively theory and practice in professional education for library and information science, which has been regarded as a persistent problem since the formalization of educational programmes (Barker, 1982 : 43). The following is a select list of references attesting to the increasing interest in the topic and the desire for reform of the programme :

- in the United States : Belzer & Brown, 1973; Conant, 1980; Monroe, 1981 and Morehead, 1980
- in the United Kingdom : Prytherch, 1979; 1982; 1986 and Clough and Quarmby, 1984,
- in South Africa : Manaka, 1982; Van Brakel, 1982 and the major survey undertaken by SAILIS, referred to above

Prytherch has reported the lack of evidence in his investigation of any systematic attempt to evaluate the

fieldwork programme (1982 (b)) as has Witucke (1976). Some educators in library and information science have accordingly expressed doubts about the retention of fieldwork in the total educational programme (Cf the views of eminent American educationalist Stueart (1981) and prominent British educationalist Davinson (1976).

Sexton and Ungerer have pointed out that acceptance of the utility and role of field experience in professional education in general is so wide that very little research has been done on analysing the relationship between this aspect of experiential education and the formal educational programme (1975 : 6).

Bok, the current President of Harvard University comments in his latest book, *Higher learning*, that university educators tend to spend more time on planning their curricula than on how students can learn more effectively or whether they are learning as much as they should. He recommends, therefore, that more research be done on learning and learning outcomes in higher education (1986 : 20).

The aim of this study is, therefore, to investigate the problem of fieldwork by doing a conceptual analysis of fieldwork, its underlying educational rationale and its relationship with other components of the formal educational programme; to examine the assumptions underlying the espoused theory of fieldwork, and to test these assumptions in view of the fact that the purpose, value and efficacy of fieldwork as

a widely adopted method of actualizing the link between theory and practice in education for library and information science has been largely unexamined.

The intention is not to conduct a formal hypothesis-testing exercise (Cf Chapter 4 for the rationale of the adoption of an alternative methodological approach).

The Anglo-American and South African contexts have been selected as the most appropriate in which to locate the conceptual study. Predominantly British, American and South African sources have accordingly been consulted. The reason for this orientation is the prevailing acknowledgement that

South African librarianship has been influenced by American and British approaches to the profession, and to a lesser, but by no means insignificant, extent by European (in particular, German and Dutch) scholarly traditions (Kesting, 1980 : 229)

The conceptual analysis has been supplemented by an empirical evaluation of two fieldwork programmes, using the case study method. In the two case studies, attention is focused on the experience and response of the students, in keeping with the emergent research paradigm in higher education which focuses on the students' perspective as opposed to that of the teacher (Entwistle, 1984 : 13) and in response to evidence of neglect by researchers of students' experience of and attitudes to fieldwork (Cf Belzer & Brown, 1973; Richardson & Hernon, 1981; Witucke, 1976; and the SAILIS investigation of 1980). (Cf

Sections 4.8 et seq for an exposition of the interpretive paradigm.)

1.1 Definitions

For the sake of conceptual clarity, definitions of a number of key concepts related to the main topic used in the thesis are provided since the terminology in the discipline is shifting and imprecise (McGarry, 1983(a) : 98).

In accordance with the *SAILIS Standards* (1987 : 17), the term "library and information science" has been adopted as the generic term except where the context indicates otherwise (e.g. usage adopted in a quotation). Similarly, the term "library and information practice" has been used to denote those activities and functions applied in libraries and information centres (SAILIS, 1987 : 17). The terms library and information work and library and information workers/professionals have also been used, depending on the demands of the context.

Witucke's definition of fieldwork has been accepted :

Professionally supervised library experience offered as part of the library school's programme and taking place during the academic sequence; comparable to student teaching. Unpaid. (1976 : 163).

Definitions associated with disciplines other than library and information science, e.g. educational concepts or methodological terms, have been defined in the text. Where differences in use signify more than semantic and

terminological imprecision, but indicate rather fundamental theoretical and philosophical divergence and when it is germane to the argument, these problems are analysed and discussed in the text.

CHAPTER 2

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Although the focus of this study is an examination of the role and value of fieldwork in education for library and information science, it was realized that this focus would of necessity entail a consideration of the total educational programme before the actual and potential role of fieldwork could be determined - that an analysis of a part of the programme could not be done in isolation and should be preceded by an analysis of the whole.

There is a substantial corpus of literature devoted to education for library and information science. Among the reasons for this interest, shared by educators and practitioners alike, is that suggested by Ramer : "There are few professional issues more important than the quality and appropriateness of preparation of practitioners" (1981 : 90). The debate is consequently lively and often acerbic.

2.1 The nature of the professions

An examination of the literature for the professions reveals that many of the problems and concerns are shared and that there are recurrent themes applicable to library and information science no less than to other professions. It is constructive to look at professional education collectively because of the similarity of goals, objectives and methods of preparation for the different professions and the opportunity

for discovering and exploring key issues that emerge as common concerns. Moreover, some of the "classical" professions have a longer history of formal education than that of the "new" professions. In particular, medicine and law for example, have a long and rich educational tradition. Observing similarities and exploiting insights and solutions from other fields does not imply a disregard for unique features and that one consequently ignores basic differences and imposes artificial analogies. After all, one of the main features of a profession is the possession of a corpus of knowledge that distinguishes it from other professions or occupations.

One of the first and most insistent problems that one encounters is : "What are the nature and aims of professional education?" Some critics might argue that to include library and information science among the professions and to classify its educational programmes as professional education, is begging the very question of professional status. It is true that according to some sociologists of the professions, notably Goode (1961; 1969), librarianship does not qualify as a profession according to the essential traits proposed by him. He identifies the knowledge base of librarianship as the "fundamental problem" in the quest for professional status : the deficiency in the theoretical foundation being the main disqualifying factor (1961 : 311). There is little agreement on what or how much the librarian should know, and there have been repeated calls to define the central problem or philosophy of librarianship - both by early authoritative commentators such as Danton (1949 : 6) and Butler (1951), and

contemporary experts such as Shaughnessy (1976 : 44), Wilson (1978 : 167) and Dain (1980 : 1706).

While there is ample evidence that the lack of a strong theoretical base has been cited as a perceived defect in library and information science - some sociologists concerned with the analysis of the defining characteristics of a profession emphasize as a *sine qua non* the nexus between a body of abstract knowledge and a profession in order to distinguish professional acts from other acts such as administrative acts (Wilkinson, 1983 : 39; Etzioni, 1964 : 39) - Winter suggests that the appropriate question to ask is not whether library and information science is a profession, but rather what degree of professionalism has been achieved (1983 : 9). It is more helpful to look upon professionalism as a continuum between the poles of occupation and profession rather than attempting a binary division (Goode, 1961 : 307). It is, thus, preferable and legitimate to view it as a continuing and incremental process.

This is the approach favoured both by Leigh (1961) and Ennis (1961) and is being increasingly used by influential sociologists as a more fruitful line of inquiry than the measurement against fixed and abstract criteria (Bucher & Strauss, 1961; Hughes, 1958, 1962, 1973; Vollmer & Mills, 1966). The question of professionalism has educational relevance because according to most sociologists of the professions, one of the defining characteristics is a long period of training and education. During the educational

process, the student learns the professional role, by combining knowledge, skills, attitudes and values (Merton et al, 1957 : 41). Moreover, those occupations designated as semi-professions or marginal professions (cf Etzioni, 1969; Jackson, 1970) would strive to emulate the well-established professions such as law and medicine, and this would in turn influence professional preparation of practitioners. The issue has, thus, a central importance in the current investigation.

In South Africa the terms of the debate have revolved around the notion of the achievement of greater professionalism in the quest for professional identity. Fouché refers to the "road of professionalism" (i.e. enhanced professionalism and a sense of professional identity), thus reinforcing the idea of the continuum, and concludes that the ideal has been significantly and purposefully furthered by the establishment of the South African Institute for Librarianship and Information Science (1982 : 139). He views the transformation of the old South African Library Association (SALA) into the South African Institute for Librarianship and Information Science (SAILIS) as a culmination in the quest for professional maturity (1982 : 137).

Library and information science in South Africa (as in the U S A and the U K) has organized itself along professional lines manifest, for example, in a formal association. This is typified in the professional institute which, in common with

other professional bodies, seeks to further its professional goals in the following ways :

- demands certain educational qualifications as a demonstration of competence and as a condition of membership
- accredits professional courses
- promotes the interests of its members
- attempts to improve the public image of its practitioners and professional identity of its service
- tries to regulate standards of practice

The role of the professional institute is important because unilateral annexation of the title and status of profession by an occupational group is insufficient in itself. What is required is public sanction and a very significant function of the professional institute is to promote and communicate the image and to secure this sanction.

The nature of the abstract knowledge that would support professional skills employed to solve concrete problems, is an important consideration in any discussion of education for library and information science because the existence and nature of such knowledge and its relationship to the skills component is an important determinant in the design of educational programmes. (The theoretical status and relationship between theory and practice in library and information science is examined in greater detail in Section 2.5.)

2.2 Education for library and information science

An examination of the history and development of education for library and information science, particularly in the United States, the United Kingdom and South Africa, will be useful for the insights provided into the origin and development of problems and dualisms evident in contemporary educational programmes. Education for library and information science has progressed from the stage of apprenticeship training to the present position which emphasizes the academic and theoretical component and de-emphasizes the pragmatic skills, an orientation prevalent in the early days of the history of education for librarianship (Kesting, 1974 : 232).

2.2.1 The United States of America

The publication in the U S A of the Williamson Report in 1923 exerted a profound influence on the future trend of education for library and information science. Bramley comments on its significance : "[It] was, perhaps more than any other single report, responsible for making librarianship a graduate profession" (1969 : 83). Williamson investigated the pattern of library education in the United States in the years 1920-1921 and discovered that its provision was split between the universities and large municipal libraries (1923 : 83). He submitted that the university was the proper home for library education which should be provided by a graduate library school within the university (1923 : 4). The first American library school had been established in 1887 by Melvil Dewey at Columbia University College (Bramley, 1969 : 79). By 1939 all

accredited library schools in the United States had been incorporated into universities (Dean, 1983 : 98).

The establishment of the Graduate Library School (GLS) of Chicago University and its activities in the 1930s can be seen to mark the beginnings of a new approach to librarianship and library education. The GLS began to move away from the speculative and subjective musings about librarianship and away from the narrowly vocational focus of "nuts and bolts" towards a self-consciously systematic research approach employing the methods of the social sciences (Waples, 1931). Leon Carnovsky, a contemporary faculty member, was very interested in the problems of professional education. He argued against merely training students in particular procedures and skills, but urged a wider education :

The student will not be bound by existing forms in librarianship but will prefer to regard the library as an end product of certain forces, or as a means designed to achieve certain social ends; he will not be so much concerned with how certain things happen but rather with why they happen that way and what their significance is (1937 : 254).

This was an important conceptual development, because these activities began to approximate more closely the approach typical of professions which has been described by Ritzer and Trice as a preoccupation with the expansion of the "theoretical and philosophical base from which their technical skill is derived" (1969 : 26-27).

The monograph of Butler, a teacher at the newly founded GLS, *An introduction to library science* (1933), was among the first - and certainly significant - general expositions of the principles of librarianship. He urged librarianship "to turn its attention from process to function" (1933 : 26) and throughout stressed the sociological, historical, educational and psychological perspectives. He deplored the librarian's preoccupation and intellectual satisfaction with technical process and lack of interest in theoretical aspects (1933 : xi-xii).

The research undertaken by Ralph Conant which resulted in the publication of the controversial *Conant report* was the response to Asheim's recommendation in 1968 that there be a "comprehensive review of the quality of graduate library education and its relevance to the needs of the profession" (Ramer, 1981 : 90). However, the report disappointed its target audience, mainly on the grounds that conclusions were drawn and recommendations made on the basis of data whose collection appeared to be faulty.

Havard-Williams and Brittain found in their survey of North American library schools a general preoccupation with curriculum revision and a concern to incorporate the new with the old (1982 : 61).

2.2.2 United Kingdom

North America has a longer association between universities and library education than the United Kingdom. The first library school was established as early as 1919 (London University School of Librarianship and Archives), but the second was established only in 1953 (Saunders, 1968 : 75). 1964 was a watershed year for education for librarianship in the United Kingdom. It saw the introduction of a new syllabus, and a move towards full-time education and a shift from the old apprentice-style training (Grogan, 1983 : 11). The Library Association is no longer responsible for examining candidates, which function has been assumed by the universities and polytechnics (Bramley, 1975 : 17). The history of the development of education for librarianship from its apprentice-style beginnings to its culmination as a graduate profession has been documented by Bramley (1981). Yet the evolution was not always effortless and was frequently resisted and viewed with some misgivings by members of the Library Association (Bramley, 1981 : 195).

Curriculum revision and planning for the future of education for library and information science have come under intensive scrutiny in recent years, with the publication of a number of important documents, viz. Cronin's *Transition years* (1983(b)), the report of the Curriculum Development Project on Library and Information Work (Dudley et al, 1983), the report of the Transbinary Study of library schools (Report of Transbinary Study, 1986), the LA Futures Working Group report (LA, 1984) and the report of the Library and Information Services Council

(LISC, 1986). (Cf parallel concern in the U S A and South Africa for curricular revision)

2.2.3 South Africa

The first appeal for the establishment of a South African library school was made as early as 1906 at the first conference for librarians in South Africa (Malan, 1973 : 6). In 1928 S A Pitt and M J Ferguson arrived in South Africa to conduct an inquiry into South African libraries for the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Ferguson's report emphasized the importance of the need for the formal education of librarians and indicated that the correspondence course of the Library Association did not meet that need. He recommended that education for librarianship be undertaken by the universities. In response to this report, a conference held at Bloemfontein in 1928 decided that steps should be taken to introduce a system of library education (Malan, 1973 : 7-8). The South African Library Association, founded in 1930, introduced correspondence courses in 1933 and continued with this activity until 1964, thus making a substantial contribution to the development of education for librarianship (Lessing, 1983 : 328).

The notion, however, of locating library education in the university persisted. A review of the current educational provision was urged by the Parliamentary Commission investigating libraries in South Africa in the mid-1930s :

The Committee is of the opinion that little improvement in the position can be anticipated until the demand in this country for trained librarians becomes such as will warrant the institution by one of the more favourably placed universities in the Union of a complete course in librarianship, which will give due weight to the cultural as well as technical aspects of the subject (Union of South Africa, 1937 : 22).

The first library school, established in 1939 at the University of Cape Town, offered courses leading to a Higher Certificate and Diploma in Librarianship. Although P C Coetzee had offered courses in librarianship since 1938 (not, however, leading to certification) to the library staff at the University of Pretoria, the externally formal establishment of the library school occurred only in 1948 (Kesting, 1980 : 230-1). Soon after their inception, the courses offered at the University of Cape Town were equated to the South African Library Association library qualifications, as were subsequent courses offered by most other universities which also established library schools in the period between 1956 and 1963. The establishment of courses at the University of Cape Town was regarded as an important development in the improvement of the status of librarians by making a contribution to their improved academic preparation (Immelman, 1941 : 152). As from 1964 the University of South Africa assumed responsibility for the courses previously offered by the South African Library Association (Lessing, 1983 : 329). Thus the handing over of professional education to the universities was complete.

The current position is that the basic entry-level qualification is either a one-year post-graduate diploma or a Bachelor's degree incorporating both professional and extra-professional academic content taking four years (SAILIS, 1987 : 8; Viljoen, 1974 : 110). The only type of specialization at the introductory professional level available has been education for school librarianship (SAILIS, 1987 : 8; Viljoen, 1974 : 110)

A recent stratification in education and training has been the introduction by the Technikons of a National Diploma in Library and Information Services designed to train library technicians at a para-professional level. Kerkham describes the development of this diploma offered for the first time in 1984 and gives an outline of the curriculum (1988). Its training orientation, as compared with the more general educational orientation of the programmes offered at the universities, is evident from these extracts quoted from the *SAILIS Standards* :

Emphasis is placed, in the first place, on acquiring technical skills involved in the handling, application and use of library and information systems, apparatus, techniques and procedures (SAILIS, 1987 : 11).

Training programmes shall be so devised that students, having completed their training, should be competent to apply standard techniques, methods and procedures in operational environments, and to handle standard systems and apparatus (1987 : 13).

Fouché concludes that a major aspect of professionalization in South Africa has been renewal in formal education (1982 : 137). An important recent development has been the commissioning by SAILIS of a nation-wide curriculum project which is investigating the current provision of education for library and information science and also projecting curricular needs and patterns for the future. The project is being executed by the HSRC. Nassimbeni has described and analysed other initiatives in the field of curriculum revision and innovation by library schools that attest to their sensitivity to a variety of changes (social, political, economic and disciplinary) that impact on curriculum development and innovation (1988). (Cf similar concern for curricular revision in the two other countries under review referred to in Section 2.6.)

One of the important features in the history of education for library and information science exemplified in the three countries under discussion is the assumption of responsibility of educational provision by the universities and other tertiary institutions. This is a significant aspect because it accounts in part for the vestigial tensions between the academic sector and the practitioners in the field who will provide employment to the products of the library schools. The conflicts inherent in this situation (which is a characteristic of most programmes of preparation in the professions) will be discussed at greater length in a section analysing the impact of location in a university on factors

influencing curricula and programmes of education, including the practice of fieldwork. (Cf Sections 2.6 and 2.7.)

Another common phenomenon is the recent drive towards revision and reform of curricula in response to key forces changing the environment in which library and information science is practised (e.g. social and technological changes) and also disciplinary growth and developments.

2.3 General concerns of professional education

The questions that are asked of professional education in general are pertinent to the concerns of education for library and information science. Among the generic professional education aims identified by Sherlock and Morris are the following :

the acquisition of knowledge, technical and occupational culture, the rewards and sacrifices, the ethical rights and duties, the development of various types of careers, and the degree and kind of commitment to the way of life of the professional (1967 : 27).

These outcomes relate either to the knowledge/skills component of the educational programme which can be conflated to signify professional competence, or to the attitude/service component which represents issues of major concern in professional preparation programmes and which are discussed at length, later in the chapter (Cf Section 2.4.5.4).

McGlothin, a noted analyst of professional education, quoted in Anderson, had some pertinent observations that emerged from his study of the future of professional education :

- "knowledge on which the practice of professions rests will continue to expand"
- "knowledge and skills required for the practice of a profession are too complex to be transmitted by apprenticeship"
- because professional education is located in the university, it shares some of the general educational aims of the university (1962 : 13).

These are helpful observations, not only for what they signify, but because they introduce some of the key concepts and central issues and problems that account for some of the tensions in the dualisms inherent in professional education :

- knowledge/skills
- theory/practice
- general educational aims/specific competencies

There is an obligation on the part of the educators to provide educational opportunities and methods for the integration of these various aspects of the professional programme which will imply, *inter alia*, the use of appropriate practice settings to facilitate this integration.

Anderson isolates as one of the central issues of professional education the "problem of theory and skill". While such dualisms will always be with us, they must "be wrestled with

continuously in professional education" (1962(b) : 18). It is worth noting the idiom he uses in his discussion. The imagery is suggestive of combat - "contention", "truce", "encroach", "wrestle", "force/s" - reflecting the existence of conflict and tensions. These tensions and their resolution will shape curriculum provision. On the one hand, the university makes demands on the professional educators regarding academic standards, research, progress in the creation of knowledge, and the maintenance of autonomy. On the other hand, the practitioners tend to place emphasis on craftsmanship and relevant and practical skills. As was aptly pointed out at a meeting of Commonwealth universities : "the history of professional education is a record of tension between the theoretical and the applied, the professional and the practical" (Tenth Congress of the Universities of the Commonwealth 1968, 1969 : 162). This tension generated by the conflicting demands will be dealt with in the context of education for library and information science at greater length elsewhere (Section 2.4.4 and 2.5.5).

Gardener, discussing professional education in general, warns the student against too narrow specialization :

On the other hand, if he is broadly trained in fundamental principles, and knows that he may have to apply those principles in varying contexts over the years, he is in a position to survive the ups and downs of the job market (1961 : 43).

This warning, made more than two decades ago, has particular significance and applicability in today's uncertain economic

climate and very changed and fluid job market offering a diversity of information-related positions that defy the neat classification relatively possible in the recent past.

Support for the contention that it is valid and productive to consider professional education in general for insight into common trends, issues and problems that might illuminate the educational programme for a particular profession, is found in a collection of papers on problems and trends in professional education (Boaz, 1981(a)). From a scrutiny of papers dealing with medicine, law, architecture, business administration, public administration, engineering, higher education and library and information science, it is clear that many of the problems are commonly experienced among the professions cited :

- definition of a profession
- relationship between education and training
- relationship between theory and practice
- impact of technology on the profession and on society
- continuing education
- practical or clinical experience

Considering professional education collectively, what can be discerned to be the general requirements of professional education? Schein identifies the three necessary components of professional education :

- an underlying theoretical foundation
- an applied science component from which are derived procedures and solutions to problems
- a skills component and an affective (attitudinal) component that is inherent in the performance of services for the client, based on the foundational and applied knowledge

Schein notes that their ordinal positions are indicative not of relative importance but of the sequence in which they are normally taught and that the third component is usually most successfully dealt with in practical or clinical work (1972 : 43-44).

A very important consideration in professional education is the synthesis of and balance between cognitive elements ("cognitive rationality") and the affective elements manifested, for example, in social responsibility (Parsons & Platt, 1973 : 258-9). Jarvis points out that skills, techniques and questions of professional judgment are not sufficient in themselves for professional practice and have to be informed by notions of service and social values (1983 : 127).

The value to be derived from a study of general aims, concerns, issues, features and problems of professional education is that it allows for the development of a conceptual framework to guide the investigation and analysis

(with due regard, nonetheless, for unique aspects) of education for library and science.

2.4 Debate about educational aims and objectives

While there is considerable attention paid in the literature to the question of aims, goals, objectives and functions of education for library and information work, few writers make the analytic distinction between these concepts that is usually found in the work of general curriculum theorists. In order to sustain any analysis of this somewhat complex subject, it is, however, necessary to define their meanings and explicate their relationships.

Most curriculum theorists agree that an educational aim is a fairly general statement of intent, not necessarily framed in a systematic way and often expressed at a fairly abstract level (Romiszowski, 1981 : 43). Davies suggests that it represents an ideal and indicates a direction (1976 : 12). An educational objective is a precise statement of intent stated in a systematic way and in terms of output or performance (Romiszowski, 1981 : 43). Objectives describe activities that a student will undertake in order to demonstrate mastery of a subject (Davies, 1976 : 15). An aim is translated and operationalized into a set of objectives, a very difficult task.

Many educational theorists have stressed the importance of planning and setting educational objectives because so many educational programmes are so vaguely conceived that it is

virtually impossible to evaluate their success. Notable among their number have been Tyler (1950), Bloom (1956), and Mager (1968; 1984). Objectives are defined as

clear specification of intent for learning, which often includes the performance and the conditions under which that performance will be expected (Hills, 1982 : 208).

Stenhouse is a prominent critic who argues that the model proposed by such authors as Mager (1968; 1984) and Kemp (1977) is simplistic, reductionist and based on the questionable assumption that if the instruction process is designed, the external factors controlled and the internal factors understood, then the outcomes can be predicted and therefore planned. The learning process, in this model, it is argued, is controlled to the extent that all pupils exposed to the programme should emerge with the same outcomes.

In his critique of the ends-means model of learning, Stenhouse suggests that Eisner's reformulation of the behavioural objectives model might be useful in advancing a solution to the problem although it does not meet all the criticisms (1975 : 78). The value of Eisner's contribution is that he distinguishes between instructional and expressive objectives. The instructional objectives will specify particular learning behaviours and will be content-linked. Expressive objectives, on the other hand, will not predict outcomes but will, rather, describe educational encounters :

An expressive objective provides both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore or focus on issues that are of peculiar interest or import to the enquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive. The expressive objective is intended to serve as a theme around which skills and understanding learned earlier can be brought to bear, but through which those skills and understanding can be expanded, elaborated and made idiosyncratic. With an expressive objective what is required is not homogeneity of response among students but diversity (Eisner, 1969 : 15-16).

Ultimately, however, Stenhouse rejects the objectives approach as too limited and suggests that the best means "of development is not by clarifying ends but by criticising practice" and that the criteria used should not be those of the ends-means model (1975 : 83).

At the theoretical level, it is very difficult to measure broad developmental aims such as the cultivation of desirable attitudes and the development of critical awareness and intelligence, particularly if professional education is not seen as a terminal process and the concept of continuing education is viewed as an important aspect of professional education. There are also practical objections to the objectives model. One is the requirement of specifying all the outcomes of a programme. The sheer detail, exhaustivity and precision required has resulted in very long and unmanageable lists. For example, in the area of social studies, American curriculum planners were forced to abandon the project of listing all the objectives when they approached 4 000 detailed objectives (Lawton, 1981 : 116).

The current President of Harvard University, in his latest book *Higher learning* that has excited much attention among academics, reflects on the problems of setting objectives and goals in tertiary education (Bok, 1986 : 20). He argues that the danger of modelling a curriculum too closely on the competency-based approach is that attention will be narrowly focused on a few measurable goals at the expense of other purposes more elusive of measurement. Competency-based education is defined as :

a form of education that derives a curriculum from an analysis of prospective or actual roles in a modern society, and that attempts to certify progress on the basis of demonstrated performance of the role (Grant et al, 1979 : 11).

Bok's position reflects a movement towards a curriculum organized in such a way as to enable the student to develop generic competencies in areas such as problem-solving, analysis and communication, in contrast to the more prevalent situation of testing of specific learning objectives and content knowledge. He suggests that rather than setting detailed instructional objectives, educators formulate common aims such as critical thinking, clarity and style of communication (1986 : 22). Having determined desirable outcomes, the educators will try to decide on educational processes they believe can accomplish them. Such a solution, which he considers as the middle road between exhaustive, detailed instructional objectives, and a failure to articulate any goals or objectives, nevertheless brings with it attendant problems of measuring students' progress towards these goals,

an enormously complex task highly susceptible to trivialization.

(These arguments raise methodological questions about the evaluation of educational programmes which guided the researcher in her research design of the empirical component of the investigation (Cf Chapter 4.))

2.4.1 Aims of library/information science education

The failure to find consensus about general aims of education for library and information science highlights the central and crucial difficulty, viz. that there is no coherent and consistent view of what constitutes the essentials of the curriculum and irresolution regarding ends and means. Tyler, an influential curriculum theorist, makes the point that formulation of educational aims precedes and determines the other elements of curriculum design, viz. selection of materials, content, instructional procedures and evaluation (1950 : 62). As Tyler points out, curriculum design is more than mere selection of content; it is a cyclical process in which all aspects are important and inter-related. In his book cited earlier, Bok argues that university educators are more concerned with content of curriculum than with the educational processes designed to achieve desired outcomes, and the assessment of student progress (Bok, 1986 : 20).

The Library and Information Services Council, which recently published a document outlining the future direction of library and information science in the UK, defined the aim of

education for library and information science (shared by other professional educational programmes) as being :

to develop the perception, understanding and the ability to think and act which are essential to the launching of a professional career (LISC, 1986 : 28).

The SAILIS Standards document does not formulate any general aims, but refers instead to general and specific objectives (1987 : 6). A study of this section of the document reveals, however, that the terms "aims" and "general objectives" tend to be used interchangeably and what have been classified under the rubric "general objectives" can be classified as general aims, e.g. "development of professional staff" (1987 : 5), "a scientific or scholarly approach" (1987 : 6), "a sense of social awareness and understanding" (1987 : 6) and "a service-oriented approach" (1987 : 6).

2.4.2 Educational objectives

In his study of trends in curriculum development of 22 accredited library schools in the U S A, Marco noted the emergence of an interesting new axiom, viz. the idea that educational objectives should be clearly and specifically defined and employed as a means of evaluation of the programmes. These objectives are to be derived from tasks and competencies expected of librarians in their careers (1978 : 281). Many observers have attested to inadequacies and lacunae in this area of educational planning. Wasserman's criticism is representative, viz. that stated objectives of

education for library and information science are "shadowy and perfunctory" (1970: 1282).

In their extended survey of education for library and information science, Belzer and Brown urged that a concerted profession-wide initiative be undertaken to develop educational goals responsive to changing social conditions and the formulation of clearly stated learning objectives related to specific competencies (1973 : 6-7). There has recently been significant response to these recommendations, e.g. the "New Directions" project commissioned by the U S Department of Education which is discussed in Section 2.4.5.2.

Another difficulty is the unresolved question as to whether a student is being prepared for immediate employment or, in the broader view, for a life-long career. This difficulty is experienced by most professional education programmes (Mayhew, 1971(b) : 55). The dilemma is nicely encapsulated in the distinction between education in or for library and information science, with McGrath proposing that the driving force should be education for library and information science (1974 : 39). There is the danger that the absence of a guiding philosophy might result in loss of coherence in the programme.

Pings and Cruzat make the point that an important educational principle is at stake in the lack of clearly defined learning objectives : accountability. In the absence of objectives, the library schools will not be truly accountable as educators

nor will students be accountable for their activities as professional librarians (1971 : 13-14).

In the South African context, de Bruin points out the need for educators in South Africa (and the organized profession) to formulate educational objectives particularly in the light of curriculum revision (1986 : 14-15). Systemic revision and redefinition of aims and objectives will of necessity impact on the various components of the curriculum, including fieldwork.

2.4.3 Standards

An important part of the accrediting function of the professional associations has been the development of standards against which educational programmes can be evaluated for accreditation (cf SAILIS, 1987). A scrutiny of available standards provides important evidence about educational means and ends, e.g. educational requirements of the profession and the marketplace, and their relationship to academic norms; and the respective responsibilities of the various agencies involved.

According to the policy statement of the ALA on library education and manpower, a professional librarian is one whose education and training has equipped him/her to identify library needs, analyse problems, set goals and formulate original and creative solutions, integrate theory into practice and plan, organize, communicate and administer successful programmes of service to users (*Library education*

and manpower, 1970 : 34). Notably absent from this list of desiderata is any reference to the armatorium of skills and competencies that might be expected. The ALA policy statement adopted in 1970 contains two clauses of particular pertinence to this aspect, viz.

27. Certain practical skills and procedures at all levels are best learned on the job rather than in the academic classroom. These relate typically to details of operation which may vary from institution, or to routines which require repetition for their mastery. The responsibility for such in-service parts of the total preparation of librarians and supportive staff rests with libraries and library systems rather than with library schools.

28. The objectives of the master's programs in librarianship [the basic professional qualification in the U S] should be to prepare librarians capable of anticipating and engineering that change and improvement required to move the profession constantly forward. The curriculum and teaching methods should be designed to serve this kind of education for the future rather than to train for the practice of the present (American Library Association, 1982 : 102).

The International Federation of Library Associations' (IFLA) *Standards for library schools*, published in 1976, recommend that the main focus of the teaching programme (to be located in the university) should be on

principles and concepts, research, problems and issues concerning librarianship. It is recognized that certain routine, technical matters must be included. However, such techniques should be taught as applications of principles, rather than as ends in themselves. The professional person must know not only what a library is doing, but why it is doing it. This approach should be evident in all courses of the curriculum (*Standards for library schools*, 1976 : 218-219).

professional practice. The attitudinal or affective component includes a cluster of aspects such as professional identity, the degree to which professional graduates identify themselves as members of the profession, integrating the professional norms and values into a role (Anderson, 1974 : 2) in a process of socialization. This is frequently exemplified in such expressions as "learning to think like a lawyer" (Anderson, 1974 : 12). The professional education programme will have an implicit, if not explicit, aim of inculcating professional attitudes and ethics and orientation to service by means of various educational activities, including the fieldwork component. (Professional socialization as an important process in professional education and a key element in fieldwork will be discussed in greater detail in Section 2.4.5.4.)

It is notable that all of these standards stress conceptual understanding, a knowledge of principles and reflect an academic and disciplinary orientation rather than a technical approach. They do not specify any technical competencies deemed necessary to support professional judgment and practice.

2.4.4 Education and training

The tension between education and training has been identified as a key concern in the discussion on general concerns of professional education (Cf Section 2.3). Harmon's distinction between the two concepts will serve the following discussion concerning their relationship :

Education refers to the acquisition of organized knowledge of the past and the development of critical cognitive abilities, attitudes and other enduring forms of personally and socially valuable behaviour (1976 : 347)

Training refers to the kind of instruction and learning situations in which goals are clearly determined and their attainment easily demonstrable, and in which skills mastery is acquired through practice and guided appraisal of learning performance (1976 : 347).

The relationship between education and training is a central feature of most programmes of professional education as the following extract dealing with education and training for engineering pertinently illustrates. The British Council for Science and Society reflect on the conundrum :

In the university training of engineers, the scientific content is again heavily and increasingly stressed. To teach the current technology and procedures of industry is more difficult and less rewarding because they evolve within industry and change rapidly. Only someone directly engaged in the activity can teach it, and what is learned will be rapidly outdated (Council for Science and Society, 1981 : 89).

The LISC report (referred to earlier in Section 2.4.1) identifies the following categories of training :

- established skills not covered in the basic educational programme, or which need updating
- new skills required to cope with changes in the employee's scope of work or changed environment
- management skills, especially at middle and top levels

- technical skills, especially those related to information technology (LISC, 1986 : 64).

The report very clearly assigns a prominent role in training (which gives essential support to education) to the employing organizations, both in the sphere of induction of new members of staff and in the provision of opportunities for existing staff to update skills (1986 : 22). The report recommends greater co-ordination of training programmes and greater use of central training provision offered by such groups as the U K On-Line Users' Group. The report acknowledges the special problems presented by training in formal basic educational programmes and comments :

The training may continue to be important for certain types of professional work but not necessarily all types ... Its role therefore needs reviewing especially in relation to the need to attract entrants of high quality (LISC, 1986 : 23).

In an address to the 1981 LA Conference, Thompson demarcated the areas of education and training as he saw them and appealed to the library schools to concern themselves with education, thus leaving the training to libraries :

How we employers dislike "trained" people from library schools. We know how to train. What we have no time to do is to educate. We can do the details, not the big picture (1981 : 481).

Support for this position is found in the recently published Green Paper on higher education in the U K which considers the

relationship between education and training, and the relationship between formal education and in-service training :

Training in current practice ought to be accepted as the responsibility of the employer following graduation and not the responsibility of the publicly funded educational system. Higher education institutions, in co-operation with the professional institutions, should together ensure that vocational degree courses are reformed so as to provide a suitably broad base on which further training and updating can be built (United Kingdom, 1985 : 25).

The *SAILIS Standards* clearly assign the responsibility for in-service training to employing organizations whose duty it is to "acquaint practitioners with the unique conditions and procedures encountered in their specific employment environment" (1987 : 5); and the provision of continuing education as the joint responsibility of teaching institutions "and practice", with the Institute being charged with its co-ordination (1987 : 4).

The approach that seems to be favoured by most educators in library and information science is a blend of education and training. The competency-based model is unduly restrictive and will tend to result in the limited use of the education thus gained because techniques and circumstances change. (Cf definition of, and Bok's strictures on, the competency model in higher education referred to in Section 2.4.) Jarvis, in turn, argues against the utilitarian challenge of those who

define professional education in terms of competencies gained :

Competency to practise is not a legitimate aim in professional education. Rather producing in the learner the ability to recognize good practice and the determination to ensure that his own future practice will not fall below this standard is a major aim (1983 : 43).

While the competency-based model does not meet all the demands of professional education, an inquiry into competencies can suggest lacunae in the educational programme and identify outmoded practices and exemplars incorporated into educational programmes.

Roberts points to a partial solution. He suggests that if it were agreed that opportunities for post-qualification continuing education might provide these skills, a major source of friction between and frustration among librarians and educators might be eliminated (1977(a) : 8). The LISC report saw a very close relationship between the function of training and continuing education (LISC, 1986 : 22).

Continuing education was defined by the Minister for Education and Science (in the United Kingdom) as

...everything other than initial education, the sustained preparatory period of formal study to whatever level completed before seeking main employment ... No one, however long or comprehensive their initial education, can hope to acquire during it all the skills and knowledge they will need during their working life of perhaps 40 years (LISC, 1986 : 74).

Cronin suggests that the disparate continuing education and post-experience courses in library and information science be co-ordinated by a single agency to ensure rationalization and optimum results and to obviate fragmentation (1984 : 82). The need for such courses is sharply felt at the moment partly because of the rapid developments in information handling and communications methods (Cronin, 1984 : 79). The Futures Working Group also identifies the need for continuing education in the recommendations regarding the educational response to the future of the profession (LA. Futures Working Group, 1985 : 10). It is clear that library schools are not able to equip students with a full armoury of the most up-to-date skills and techniques. However, the lack of access to continuing education programmes and courses because of financial limitations constitutes a formidable constraint to their widespread and optimal exploitation.

The foregoing discussion of education and training (including continuing education) strongly suggests a partnership model of professional education, with educators and practitioners participating in the educational enterprise. The relationship between education and training underlines the complementary relationship between academics and practitioners. The fieldwork programme offers a clear example of how this joint partnership may manifest itself.

2.4.5 Curriculum

The concept of curriculum, the vehicle for education and training, is a very complex one and embraces many aspects. Curriculum cannot be divorced from political, socio-cultural, economic and ethical issues. Therefore it is not sufficient for curriculum developers to adopt only a programmatic approach (e.g. what and how to teach) but they should also adopt a critical attitude bearing in mind these dimensions of the curriculum (Walker & Soltis, 1986 : 56). (These external influences are discussed in Section 2.6)

Educators have been much exercised in the past to define the knowledge base of library and information science and to identify the associated skills and competencies. This is a very important step, because once content has been determined, contingent decisions about implementation, teaching methods and materials can be made.

Decisions have to be made about the orientation of the course - whether it is to be generalist or specialist. Some institutions, for example, have opted for a specialization in information work, e.g. City University, London (Viljoen, 1974 : 100). In the U S, information science programmes have been established, *inter alia* at the Georgia Institute of Technology, University of Pittsburgh (Interdisciplinary Department of Information Science) and Syracuse University (School of Information Studies).

The recent influential report by the Library and Information Services Council (LISC) expresses reservations - in the light of disciplinary growth and incorporation of subjects that used to be peripheral (e.g. communications and technology) - that a comprehensive and generalist one-year post-graduate course can continue without review (LISC, 1986 : 39). Based on current trends, the report foresees greater variety and flexibility in the presentation of more specialized courses, e.g. one slanted towards the design and management of information systems, or one towards public librarianship linked with leisure management (1986 : 39-40).

In South Africa there has been general support hitherto for the idea that the course should integrate library and information science and that the education should be general (with the exception of specialist education for school librarians) (SAILIS, 1987 : 6; Viljoen, 1974). It is possible that serious thought will have to be given by the profession in South Africa to diversification and specialization, particularly once the findings of the commissioned project on curriculum development are published (Cf Section 2.2.3).

2.4.5.1 Core curriculum

A dominant theme in the discussion and debate about the curriculum has been the concept of the core curriculum. Because standards usually fail to specify details, it is very difficult to adduce a commonly accepted core curriculum - that irreducible unit that is common to all branches of library and information science and that which distinguishes it from other

professions. As Boll points out, it incorporates the notion that its possession is a prerequisite for a member of the profession to function effectively (1972 : 199). Although the ALA standards of 1972 require that a core curriculum be followed - "the principles and procedures common to all types of libraries and library programs are basic and must be included even in specialised programs" (Horn, 1974 : 53) - these principles and procedures have not been identified (Horn, 1974 : 53). Borko believes that it is unlikely that agreement on a single core curriculum will be achieved but that

the more innovative schools will lead in the design of an integrated information curriculum, to include a number of specializations, a research component, a practicum or internship program, and a provision of life-long continuing education (1984 : 190).

Grogan reports the many vicissitudes that the idea of the core curriculum has undergone with its many proponents and opponents (1983 : 20). As a guiding principle its importance is stressed both by the ALA *Standards for accreditation* of 1972, the IFLA *Standards for library schools* of 1976 and the Unesco *Guidelines for curriculum development in information studies* of 1978. In the U K there has been steadfast adherence to the core concept and content (Grogan, 1983 : 21). The SAILIS *Standards* imply the existence of a core curriculum in their identification of major elements which together constitute a cohesive whole (SAILIS, 1987 : 20). This document outlines the study elements to be incorporated in the

curriculum for the achievement of the principal objective of the profession which "is epitomised in the processes surrounding the transfer of the content of the record to users" (SAILIS, 1987 : 21).

The value of designing a core curriculum is that it forces the intellectual effort that is needed to define the essence, abstract it from the welter of detail to find common underlying principles, and to use the principles and concepts as a base transcending the merely particular. Moreover, it can be viewed as a means of accommodating both library and information science and integrating them in one curriculum by identifying and incorporating common areas. Ultimately all curricula imply a core determined by that teaching institution as being essential for mastery before qualification and entrance into the profession.

2.4.5.2 Task analysis

A functionalist method of defining the curriculum is to employ the results of task analysis. As libraries and library systems develop in complexity, the analysis of tasks grows to unmanageable lists. Dewey's programme "was essentially all core based upon a task analysis of what desk workers do in libraries" (Asheim, 1978 : 153). In a provocative paper on the educational requirements of librarians, Line argues that the traditional skills of cataloguing, classification and reference normally occupying the central position of any description of librarianship and its distinguishing characteristics, in fact do not warrant such a commanding

position and belong only on the periphery because they are akin to some clerical tasks (perhaps of a higher order) that can be acquired by practice (1983 : 30).

This is not consonant with the view of many educators and practitioners who stress the vocational aspect of library education and the gaining of competencies. Derr claims that the library school has a greater vocational aim than an educational aim : "to prepare prospective librarians to perform tasks which they are called upon to perform in libraries" (1980 : 138). Marco's conception of the aim of the library school is also task-oriented in that elements for inclusion in the programme depend typically on a careful analysis of tasks performed by libraries in the country to be served (1977 : 357). The "New Directions" project carried out by King Research, Inc. was conceived of as an instrument of use to educators and practitioners in defining the present and future competencies of the work-force in libraries - given the flux and the rate of change in the professional field and the need to keep education and training current in the light of technological and other developments. Its first task was to identify and describe competencies of the information professionals. Competencies were defined as comprising three major elements :

- knowledge
- skills
- attitudes (Griffiths, 1984 : 43-44).

The "New Directions" study recognized that the library is only one, albeit a very important, working environment and their data allowed the researchers to define a variety of working environments that are emerging as offering employment to people "with traditional library-type skills" (Griffiths, 1985 : 116).

Similarly, in the United Kingdom the Futures Working Party was established by the LA

to consider the scope and future manpower requirements of the library and information community; the implications for the policies of the Association, including education (LA, 1984 : 1).

One of the trends noted by the Group was that librarians require and employ a range of skills wider than those traditionally associated with the profession (LA. Futures Working Party, 1985 : 2). They also found evidence of new and expanding markets for professional librarians and suggested that library and information skills are capable of being transferred to other contexts such as that of the communications field (1985 : 3).

Taylor also cautions against over-identification of the institution of the library with education for library and information science. He proposes that a revised framework of education should be less institution-dependent than the traditional models and should evince a greater appreciation of the total information environment (1979 : 1872).

As Dudley and others discovered from their recent survey of education for librarianship in the U K :

the information role of library and information services and the role of information in society are now seen in the objectives and structure of the course, rather than the operational requirements of libraries and information units, and act as the starting point of courses (Dudley *et al*, 1983 : 38).

The manpower implications of these reports is that the market is expanding to offer a variety of information activities in diverse environments that include the library as one of a number of agencies. Demands are being made on library schools to recognize and to respond to the changes by making appropriate curricular innovations, including the provision of suitable fieldwork opportunities.

There has been no national survey in South Africa to determine manpower requirements. Aspects of manpower requirements and patterns of employment have been included in the HSRC curriculum development project currently being undertaken. (Cf Section 2.2.3.). Empirical data are, however, available from a study published in 1985 which examined the work situation of a group of information workers in South Africa (Slabbert, 1985). Although this study was restricted to information workers (including librarians) involved with scientific and technological information (Slabbert, 1985 : 6-7), it makes an important contribution to the understanding of manpower requirements of an increasingly important sector of the library and information infrastructure of South Africa.

2.4.5.3 Professional competence and attitude

The investigation of general concerns of professional education has revealed that the two major components of a professional education programme relate to the acquisition of professional competence and professional attitudes (Cf Section 2.3 and 2.4.3). As a means of unifying the elements of the professional competence component, some thinkers have advocated a problem-solving approach whereby the student is taught to think systematically (Harbo & Layzell-Ward, 1982 : 185). Cultivation of critical thinking and analytical skills is necessary so that the new professional will be able to meet the challenge of the future and not merely the immediate demands of present practice and so cope with the unpredictable, the unknown and the uncharted. Foskett, in an attempt to define the appropriate balance between theory and practice, comes down firmly against the notion of a library school equipping a student with a package of refined skills (1971). He argues against the wisdom and feasibility of producing such a package and proposes the idea that the student be enthused with the formation and inculcation of an attitude of mind, the provision of a conceptual framework as a means of exploring and testing the tools and functions of librarianship. A sound professional attitude towards library and information science as a profession and as a discipline is likely to ensure that the student will be highly motivated to acquire and polish skills necessary for his professional functioning (1971 : 228). This approach makes demands on the library school to eschew an approach of skill-getting and skill-using and certification of

competence to exercise these skills, but to take the wider view. This would require the library and information worker to have a wider understanding of the socio-cultural and political issues involved in the practice of the profession. The aim would be to transcend the acquisition of skills and to expose the student to the wider social context and complex issues such as intellectual freedom, freedom of information, literacy/illiteracy, economics of information, and the socio-cultural infrastructure. Were this not the case, the training could be managed quite effectively as an apprenticeship or in a technical institution. (The fieldwork programme could provide the environment where these aspects could be experienced and demonstrated.)

It is clear, then, that some attention should be paid to technical skills and to locating them in a conceptual framework. The more difficult decision is to determine the proportion and how to integrate them effectively. Because of the diversity of contexts in which the librarian will initially work, it is both unrealistic and undesirable to see education for library and information science as training for the first position.

It is not practicable for the library school to determine the particular needs of all the different employing sectors and ensure that the students be trained in all the techniques, routines, skills and particular bibliographic knowledge to satisfy the diverse demands of a wide variety of employers.

2.4.5.4 Professional socialization

Professional socialization refers to that process whereby an individual begins to "think, act and feel" as a member of a profession (Merton et al, 1957 : 7). Educational processes designed to inculcate a sense of professional identity and ethics and a commitment to service have enjoyed little attention in the literature of professional education for library and information science. The view of most educators is premised on the assumption that the development of desirable attitudes is an incremental process that pervades the programme and that the only specific provision made for it is in the fieldwork programme that allows for initial socialization. Moreover, the cultivation of professional attitudes, ethics and a service orientation is not a terminal process that can be measured at the end of the formal educational programme, as growth in this area continues throughout the professional's career and is tied up with increasing competence, knowledge and skills. This on the surface appears a defensible view because as Erikson points out "identity is never gained nor maintained once and for all" (1950 : 57).

However, as sociologists have pointed out, the process of "becoming" a professional is a significant one in the professional preparation programme and, as such, warrants the close attention of professional educators. Sociologists distinguish between primary socialization which occurs in childhood and secondary socialization which "is any subsequent process that inducts an already socialized individual into new

sectors of the objective world of his society" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966 : 150). A further distinction, which is germane to an investigation of fieldwork is "anticipatory socialization" which according to Merton et al has two functions :

For the individual who adopts the values of a group to which he aspires but does not belong, the orientation may serve the twin functions of aiding his rise into that group and of easing his adjustment after he becomes part of it (1957 : 265).

According to this definition, the fieldwork programme can be viewed as an important element in anticipatory socialization and the processes involved should accordingly be studied.

The literature of professional education for library and information science has virtually ignored the process of professional socialization and the relevant sociological theories of occupational socialization : there is no entry, for example, for "professional socialization" in *Library and Information Science Abstracts*. (Cf Section 3.3 which details the objectives of fieldwork : the literature does refer to the cultivation of professional attitudes but the references go no further than an assumption that such a transmission will take place.) The professional literature has failed to take into account the sociological theories and the research which have problematized rather than taken for granted the transmission of professional values, recognizing discontinuities and conflicting perspectives in the process (Cf Becker et al, 1961; Merton et al, 1957; Olesen & Whittaker, 1968).

According to Olesen and Whittaker, the socialization into a particular role or setting is punctuated with frequent questions and interpretation, e.g. "Is this what I want to do?" From the point of view of the candidates, "the movement forward is constantly and continually problematic" (Olesen & Whaittaker, 1968 : 13).

The sparse (and usually tangential) references to the socialization of library and information science students into the profession gloss over important problems and seem to imply a consensual, and static value system in the profession. This is manifestly an untenable view, in South Africa at least, where it is clear that, for example, professional values regarding such issues as intellectual freedom and censorship are by no means uniform.

Two works on medical students in the U S have become the classics of professional socialization and have been drawn on heavily by subsequent studies both in the medical and other fields (Becker *et al*, 1961; Merton *et al*, 1957). A work by Lacey on the socialization of teachers (and the importance of teacher training in the process) has also been influential (1977). The growing literature on education students' experiences in field settings portrays them as negotiating a complex set of institutional, occupational and social structures while trying to integrate their beliefs and orientations with accepted knowledge and procedures (Yinger, 1987 : 298). A good deal of research on professional socialization both in teacher education and in medical

education locates a major socializing influence within the field experience which is not mainly, or merely, a mechanism to integrate theory and practice (Becker *et al*, 1961; Giroux, 1980; Merton *et al*, 1957; Zeichner & Grant, 1981).

While it is productive (and necessary) to turn, in the absence of published research in the library and information science field, to research on teacher socialization for findings and concepts that might be applicable, a very significant feature distinguishes teacher socialization from socialization into the library and information science profession. Education students have had at least twelve years' exposure to teachers and have assimilated a great deal of what they think about teacher behaviour. They have already served what Lortie refers to as an "apprenticeship of observation" (1975 : 79).

2.5 Theory and Practice

Any inventory of critical issues in contemporary professional education will include the relationship between theoretical and practical components of the programme. In fact, the central conundrum of professional education is the relationship between theory and practice and how to reconcile them. (Cf Section 2.3 and discussion in Section 2.4.4 of the tension between education and training). The discussion is, moreover, particularly germane to an investigation of fieldwork whose main rationale is expressed as the integration of theory and practice (Cf Section 3.3.)

Many observers of and participants in education for library and information science have pointed to the lack of resolution of the problem and the continuing inquiry concerning the issue (Conant, 1980; Derr, 1980; Grogan, 1983; Morehead, 1980; Nelson, 1982; Zaaïman, 1982(b)).

Discussion of the theory/practice relationship in library and information science will centre on the following questions :

- meaning of theory
- quest for theoretical foundation
- relationship between theory and practice

2.5.1 Meaning of theory

The benchmark of a good theory is that it will have, in Stenhouse's apposite description, an executive as well as a contemplative slant (1975 : 70). Theory organizes data in such a way as to promote understanding and to provide a basis for action.

The first definition given of "theory" in the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* is "supposition or system of ideas explaining something, esp. one based on general principles independent of the facts, phenomena, etc., to be explained" (1976 : 1201). In the natural sciences, as O'Connor explains, theory is a "logically interconnected set of hypotheses confirmed by observation and which has further properties of being both refutable and explanatory" (1973 : 50). This scientific notion of theory in the sense of a body of knowledge, or propositions that explain phenomena and have predictive power,

is scarce and of a narrow and disparate nature in library and information science; and understandably so because of the difference in contexts and approach between the natural sciences and library and information science where the human dimension is of such importance. Busha and Harter, commenting on the state of the art find that "most of librarianship's theories are presently in a state of early formulation" and that the propositions are largely unverified and do not constitute a unified body or set (1980 : 14).

As a concept "theory" is often used loosely to mean principles. Urquhart was prompted to write his book on the principles of librarianship because "so little theory is available" (1982 : 434). Boyce and Kraft distinguish between principles and theory in the following way : a principle represents a single law derived from sustained observation and theory incorporates a body of such principles and suggests new principles to be tested so as to increase knowledge and strengthen the theory (1985 : 154).

When writers discuss the dichotomy between theory and practice and speak in somewhat denigrating terms about theory, what they are really comparing is, not theory and practice, but what actually happens in some libraries, in contrast to normative standards or principles : for example, the contrast between principles in book selection advocated by Haines (1950) and Bonk and Magrill (1979) and observed practice in many libraries. In this sense theory is used to signify principles or abstract knowledge. The example given to

illustrate this definition of theory by the Concise Oxford Dictionary is : "This is all very well in theory but how will it work in practice ?" (1976 : 1201). Another shade of meaning commonly associated with the idea of theory in librarianship is philosophy which, as a term, is close to the notion of principles.

A major contribution to the general debate about the meaning of science and theory-building has been made by Kuhn whose famous *The structure of scientific revolutions* has, in significant ways, set the terms for the debate (1970). His theories have had a great influence on the thinking in the social sciences, including library and information science, about the nature of theory and theory-building in a particular disciplinary framework.

Kuhn is noted for his theory of scientific revolutions (1970). Normal science is practised according to a paradigm until inexplicable anomalies appear. This leads to a crisis which generates a revolution which produces a new paradigm which can contain and explain the anomalies (1970 : 167).

Kuhn proposed the idea of consensual thinking characterizing the sciences and claimed that the social sciences had not attained the status of science because of the multitude and diversity of paradigms. The very existence and the maturity of a science can be measured by the existence of a paradigm (1970 : 43-51). This widely debated and applied concept has spurred thinkers in disciplines other than the natural

sciences to identify or attain their paradigm, e.g. economics (Stanfield, 1974); sociology (Ritzer, 1975; Friedrichs, 1970) and library and information science (Winter, 1983).

The vigorous search for a paradigm in library and information science, indeed also in the social sciences, is hampered by the fact that, according to Masterman's analysis, the term "paradigm" had twenty-one shades of meaning in Kuhn's work. Among the meanings are : a universally recognized scientific achievement, a myth, a philosophy or constellation of questions, a general epistemological perspective, a new way of seeing (1970 : 61-65). In his rejoinder to Masterman, Kuhn argued that all of the interpretations

would find a place in the disciplinary matrix, but they would not be lumped together as paradigms, individually or collectively ... If I could, I would call these problem-solution paradigms for they are what led me to the choice of the term in the first place. Having lost control of the word, however, I shall henceforth describe them as exemplars (1970 : 271-272)

Ritzer's interpretation of a paradigm clarifies and integrates some of the concepts referred to by Kuhn :

A paradigm is a fundamental image of the subject matter within a science. It serves to define what should be studied, what questions should be asked and what rules should be followed in interpreting the answers obtained. The paradigm is the broadest unit of consensus within a science and serves to differentiate one scientific community (or subcommunity) from another. It subsumes, defines and interrelates the exemplars, theories, methods and instruments that exist within it (1975 : 7).

The strength and novelty of this construct lies in its function of integrating and reconciling into a disciplinary matrix all the elements mentioned by Kuhn.

2.5.2 Quest for theoretical foundation

The theoretical base of library and information science, and its perceived defects and poverty, is frequently debated and analysed in the literature. One of the spurs for this intellectual quest is the widely accepted idea that the possession of a corpus of theoretical knowledge is an important defining characteristic of a profession (cf Section 2.1) and the search for a paradigm that will provide a model of consensual theory-building. There is a continuing effort in library and information science to derive a systematic foundational theory that will unite theoretical principles and good practice in the belief that a solid base of theoretical knowledge will advance claims for scholarly and professional recognition (cf Busha & Harter, 1980 : 6).

There is voluminous evidence of disquiet about the state of theoretical development in the discipline. Wilkinson's comments are representative :

... the inability to establish a theoretical base for our discipline has resulted in an inability to delineate professional purpose and responsibility ... this in turn has frustrated attempts to develop a necessary research base for our discipline (1983 :40).

Shera's criticism in 1960 that librarians had failed to define what librarianship is and had neglected theory in favour of

vocationalism (1960 : 1737) is repeated a quarter century later by many commentators. McGarry writing in 1983 comments on the shaky theoretical foundation as evidenced by the shifting and imprecise terminology and the uncertainty regarding intellectual direction (1983(a) : 98-99).

There are pervasive ontological problems in the attempts to strengthen the theoretical base of library and information science. Some of the following questions illustrate these problems :

- What is the meaning of the terms "library science" and "information science"?
- What are the units of analysis, the objects of study ?
- Are they the library, knowledge, recorded knowledge, information, documents?

Kaegbein notes, for example, that as yet there is no universally accepted definition of information science and its relationship to library science and that the need to arrive at such a definition was recognized by participants of the FID (Federation Internationale de Documentation) Seminar in Hong Kong in 1982 (1983 : 74).

Assuming the library to be the object of study, one can perceive that this has led to a pragmatic and deterministic perspective which views the library as an institution to be investigated. Perhaps the relational aspects are the ones that should direct the focus of investigation : e.g. the relationship between users, documents and the institutions and

the relative position of the institution vis-a-vis other institutions as an expression of political, economic and social power relations.

Another obstacle to theory building is conceptual. Theory requires a common language of understanding. Derr notes the many conceptual disagreements clouding the meaning of such key concepts as information, information need, relevance and effectiveness (1983 : 196). Levitan has identified and described twenty-nine different approaches to the study of information as a concept (1980 : 243). Christ observes that the poverty of professional terminology reflects the poverty of the philosophical framework (1972 : 21). Preoccupation with institutional applications, techniques and pragmatic problem-solving has retarded the establishment of solid theoretical foundations (Shaughnessy, 1976 : 168; Line, 1965 : 272).

According to Shera the self-conscious attempt to analyse the library as a sociological phenomenon and the attempt to define its societal role is of recent origin (1980 : 316). Olaisen (1985 : 130) finds evidence of the broadening of the conceptual framework in the contributions by such people as Buckland (1983), Swanson (1980) and Wilson (1983). In 1986 McKee proposed a knowledge-based model of information derived from the nature of the discipline rooted in the nature of knowledge and knowledge transmission in society (McKee, 1986). While his is not a detailed exposition of all the intellectual ramifications, it provides, nonetheless, a coherent and

defensible theoretical approach. Among the candidates for the inclusive theory are Nitecki's which postulates a relationship between three basic elements, viz. transfer of knowledge (or information) : the generic book (B); its subject matter or knowledge (K); and its readers or users (U) (1981 : 107).

2.5.3 Relationship between theory and practice

Following this discussion of the uncertain status and nature of theory in library and information science, it becomes apparent that an examination of the relationship between theory and practice is very difficult. It is more productive to uncover the relationship between theory and practice than merely to distinguish them by following the logical principle of opposition and contrast. It is clear from the literature that there is a dichotomy in education for library and information science between theory and practice which are often regarded as two independent principles. Many writers assume a binary classification between theory and practice and have stressed their antithetical character. The popular value distinction between the two is typified in a selection of recent statements such as the following : "Emphasis in this chapter is on the practical and useful over the theoretical and formulaic" (Mosher, 1980 : 100) and "Public librarians do not bother much about theory. They are usually up to their ears in practical problems" (Castagna, 1980 : 141) and "In a book devoted to library management the word 'theory' may be thought inappropriate by some and irrelevant by others" (Samuels & McClure, 1982 : 11). Such statements, and they are

legion, reflect a resistance to and a limited understanding of theory.

In trying to establish the relationship, it is erroneous to assign to theory an exclusively utilitarian role of shaping or determining practice. There is a suspicion regarding theoretical studies because of the failure to observe the link between theory and improved performance. This is an important dimension because of the widespread concern about professional practice, but there is also room for independent inquiry unprompted by specific practical problems requiring solution.

Dearden points out that the relationship between theory and practice is not always clear to practitioners in a surprising number of disciplines (1980 : 18). With reference to education, the eminent theorist, Peters, notes that the value of theory is not so much to provide precepts for practice (e.g. teaching skills) as to provide a whole transforming perspective so that the situation is seen in a different light (1983 : 40). There is scope for this kind of theoretical perspective in library and information science as there is for "practical theory" which will help formulate principles for action.

The tendency for functional separation of theory and practice has already been noted. It is necessary to look at the function of theory with regard to practice and determine whether it is possible, or desirable to unify the two concepts. One can turn to other fields for guidance. With

reference to sociology, Ritzer suggests that dialectical logic, notwithstanding its contemporary radical political connotations can offer insights (1979). It is helpful to employ dialectical logic in the study of theory/praxis because it reveals relationships. Ritzer suggests that a term such as "relational" which is less ideologically loaded could be used to describe this approach (1979 : 45). Marxist philosophy and concept of history and social action can be usefully applied. According to Gramsci, practice is not opposed to intellectual activity but is itself a practico-theoretical activity (Ricouer, 1978 : 1418). Practice is developed through theory and in itself tests, verifies and refines theory (Ricouer, 1978 : 1420). The dialectical relationship is expressed in the following passage :

Any theory which restricted itself merely to the service of current practice would inevitably restrict its own possibilities, lose its ascendancy over empirical scientific knowledge and, in the final resort, display its inadequacy ... In this case, creative practice would cease to be quickened by theory; it would no longer be apprehended with the aid of theory, the possibilities and perspectives which cannot be brought to light, as practical propositions, except on the basis of theory.

Since theory comes before practice, anticipating its problems and the means for their solution, it must naturally remain relatively independent of practice. The whole history of science confirms this (Ricouer, 1978 : 1422).

This aspect of dialectical thinking (which also informs Marxist thinking) offers a corrective perspective and has been accepted by non-Marxists such as John Dewey who found the

disjunction between theory and practice unhelpful. The dialectical view recognizes the opposition and tension in the conflicting categories and seeks to synthesize them (Runes, 1968 : 79).

With regard to education for library and information science, the fieldwork programme suggests itself as the means of synthesizing the two. The progression should not be seen as linear and sequential but rather as interactive with the elements mutually supporting and extending each other in a dialectical relationship with reciprocal effect.

The problem of integrating theory and practice in library and information science has not yet been solved (Derr, 1983 : 193). Derr suggests that theory and practice can never be finally integrated until the student has moved into professional practice (1983 : 201). If fieldwork has the potential of providing the integrative mechanism of reconciling theory and practice, it is legitimate to ask whether this has happened. Whether and to what extent integration of theory and practice takes place in the fieldwork programme, and the mechanism to achieve it, if it does take place, will be investigated empirically in this study.

2.6 External influences on the educational programme

As library and information science (the discipline and the profession) is embedded in a particular milieu which shapes it, so, too, is education for the profession shaped and influenced by factors and their inter-relationships in that milieu. The environment embraces both the wider community and region or country served, and also the teaching environment in which the education is offered.

Zaaiman proposes a useful methodology for curriculum design (and reform) which is advocated by SAILIS (1986 : 1). As a first step in curriculum design, situational analysis should be employed. This methodology requires a study of society's current needs, values and demands (1986 : 1) and is entirely consistent with demands from many quarters to explore local socio-cultural, political and economic conditions as significant factors in curriculum design (Cf Gerryts, 1974; Golby, Greenwald & West, 1975; Lundu, 1982). A detailed situational analysis is outside the scope of the present investigation, but the researcher will make brief reference to a number of external influences shaping the curriculum. For reasons of economy, these influences have been subsumed under the rubric "location in the university" because the university influences the direction of the teaching programme and is, in its turn, subject to influences from the broader community (region and country that it serves).

2.6.1 Location in the university

The educational environment plays an important role in shaping and influencing the kind of educational programme offered. As noted earlier, education for library and information science is located in the university in South Africa, and the other two countries under review. This academic dimension is important in the determination of the educational programme, as will be demonstrated in this section with reference to professional education in general and education for library and information science in particular.

A national investigation into study programmes at South African universities in 1981/2 considered the question of professional education programmes offered by the universities and the associated problems. The survey revealed the widespread phenomenon of the professions' requiring university qualifications of their entrants. The training component has been relegated to the universities by the professions who have often laid down "[training] requirements that are not necessarily well founded in academic or university terms" (South African Post-Secondary Education, 1982 : 111-112). The survey also noted the increasing number of professional qualifications being offered at South African universities since the introduction of the first "career-focused" degree at the University of Cape Town in 1925, viz. a degree in architecture (South African Post-Secondary Education, 1982 : 97).

The programme does not, however, belong in the university if it is merely involved with technical training and does not examine the involvement of its discipline with the human condition (Boyd, 1968 : 236). Most educators would agree that the aim of a university education is the cultivation of analytical and critical thinking, in addition to the acquisition of knowledge and skills related to a discipline. Discussing the theme of the encouragement of critical thinking at the university, Ashby has described post-conventional thinking rather neatly :

The student moves from the uncritical acceptance of orthodoxy to creative dissent ... there must be opportunities for the intellect to be stretched to its capacity, the critical faculty sharpened to the point at which it can change ideas (1973 : 147 - 149).

Boyd's strictures (1968) on an exclusively technicist orientation in professional education highlight one of the sources of tension and conflict between the professional associations and the universities : the shift from a practical-technical orientation to a theoretical-academic bias (Malan, 1973 : 12). The difficulty remains to reconcile the different perspectives that inhere in the vision of the university and the professions, and also to balance the control exercised by the university and the professional institutes.

The university demands that the professional schools emphasize theoretical foundations of professional practice and do research in order to advance the theoretical knowledge base

(McConnell, Anderson & Hunter, 1962 : 259). The practitioners, on the other hand have a predominantly pragmatic orientation to knowledge and emphasize immediate problem-solving (Rayward, 1983 : 1314), which reinforces the tension between theory and practice.

Mayhew describes nicely the problems inherent in the relationship between the educators and the practitioners and accrediting agencies :

If the school becomes too academic, it alienates the profession, but if it swings too far in the direction of application, it jeopardises its reputation with other academics and prospective students. If the professional school conforms too closely in the requirements of accreditation ... it puts itself at odds with its own university relationship and student demands for curricular relevance (1971(a) : 19).

Saunders, the Principal of the University of Cape Town, has expressed concern that is wide-spread about the encroachment of professional councils through their accreditation procedures in the determination of programmes of professional education offered at the university (1985-1986 : 66). The perspective of professional education among professional councils tends to be too narrowly focused, in contrast to the vision of the university which is broader and more concerned with the implications of higher education for society as a whole (1985-1986 : 66).

The mission of the university is bound to affect the staff of the library school. The University of Cape Town, for example,

published its Mission Statement in 1985, which gave explicit expression to its liberal educational philosophy (Mission Statement, 1985). Local views about appropriate curricular development may differ from the views of the larger professional community or the accrediting agency. Internal factors such as the orientation of the staff of the library school towards research, professional practice and types of recruits will have an influence on the educational programme. Studies have shown that members of staff of academic departments (including those engaged in professional education) identify with different paradigms which influence research style, teaching style, curriculum development and programme organizational procedures (Biglan, 1973; Cresswell & Roskens, 1981).

Parlett has shown that a very critical component that will powerfully influence students in their behaviour and their learning is departmental distinctiveness, manifest, for example, in educational philosophy (1977 : 180). Some university departments have a more committed and explicit stance than others and it is this philosophy which is a prominent component in the learning milieu. He suggests that this philosophy which will be expressed through various "ideas in currency", approaches, curricula and teaching styles may be among the most critically formative of the forces emanating from the department and influencing the student.

The development of library and information science as a graduate profession from the historical perspective has been

described in Section 2.2. This dimension needs to be considered in greater depth because it raises important questions about the relationship between the organized profession (of which the educators are members) and the library school which owes allegiance to the university. As pointed out earlier, the academic environment exercises a significant influence on the educational programme by way of the ethos and mission of the university and also more general academic demands identified earlier. The organized profession also exerts an influence on the educational programme through such means as standards, accreditation procedures, and the expectations and demands of employing bodies.

One of the main criteria of the IFLA *Standards for library schools*, published in 1976, is that the library school should be located in a university (1976 : 211). As early as 1923, the Williamson Report to the Carnegie Corporation of New York stressed the desirability of education for librarianship being undertaken in institutions of higher learning, as in educational programmes for other professions (Immelman, 1941 : 153). Immelman argued that the academic environment and contact with and input by other academics in other disciplines would strengthen the curriculum and that "university training does establish the 'respectability' of the library profession in the eyes of non-librarians in a way that no other action would achieve as readily" (1941 : 153). Other disciplinary benefits are the maturity, stability and intellectual stature provided by the university, of particular importance to the

emerging professions (McConnell, Anderson & Hunter, 1962 : 260).

Zaaiman comments on the strategic importance of the academic dimension in professional education :

a graduate qualification is accepted by the authorities as the basic mark of professional proficiency. This achievement should be sustained, especially in the face of the present questioning in South Africa of the suitability of university education for the profession. Not to maintain and strengthen our academic status would be suicide for our profession (1982(a) : 43).

Cronin investigated the often reiterated allegation that there is a mismatch between the requirements of employers and the products of library schools. He concluded that there were conflicting objectives and recommended that further research be done on the reason for the conflicting objectives (1982).

A prominent area of conflict seems to be that, as has been suggested by White, practitioners would like their employees to be "trained" and not "educated" (1983 : 520), whereas many library schools take the longer view of a career and are disinclined to train for first entry-level positions because mere training simply entrenches the status quo and is inconsistent with the view of education as a tool for change. McDonald Ross argues that the distinction between knowledge and skills (or education and training) is significant and functionally necessary (1972 : 246-7). The distinction is useful in curriculum design in that sufficiently

differentiated objectives will be formulated to take into account the gradations between skills and knowledge, and education and training, and the consequent choice of appropriate methods. A means of addressing the problem is in defining more clearly the respective areas of responsibility of the library schools, employing authorities and central training facilities. (Cf the arguments presented in Section 2.4.5.3 in which an attempt was made to explicate the relationship between education and training.)

Cronin suggests that the resolution of the conflict between the two sectors lies in the achievement of "symbiotic equilibrium" (1982 : 10). There are various mechanisms which might facilitate this relationship : guest lectureships, combined continuing programmes, accreditation procedures and, importantly, fieldwork arrangements.

Berry and Battin both attribute the problems in education for library and information science to the inadequate comprehension and co-operation between the educators and the practitioners (1983 : 610; 1983 : 22). If this is the case, it is a strong argument for increased consultation and co-operation and an examination of existing mechanisms, and the development of new mechanisms, if necessary, to achieve this. What is also required is an examination of the interface between the university and the organized profession, particularly employing bodies, as it affects the student (and especially his/her first exposure to this relationship, viz. fieldwork).

The changing social and politico-economic relations in South Africa offer challenges to tertiary education, in general, and education for library and information science in particular. The universities react, respond and interact with the socio-political milieu and cannot retreat to the ivory tower, impervious to change. The significance of the relationship between the university and its community is widely recognized as an important factor in educational provision. The recently published *Green Paper* on higher education in Britain stresses the importance of this relationship and recommends a close association between the university and its local community (United Kingdom, 1985 : 4).

The Principal of the University of Cape Town addressed one of the key factors that would determine the future planning of all academic sectors of the University, viz. the need for the University to reflect the changing environment in which it functions and the possibilities for interaction (University of Cape Town, 1986 : 1). The scope for involvement with the community is particularized :

It [the university] encourages direct participation in community work where the position, training and skills of university staff and students mean that they have a particular role and opportunity (1986 : 2).

Such a position has implications, both for curriculum planning and for elements such as practical work, including fieldwork whose potential as a vehicle for community involvement needs to be considered. (A community agency, for example, might be

included as a suitable site for field experience as a means of satisfying a variety of desirable criteria in the light of curriculum development in the current climate.)

As noted earlier, a detailed situational analysis is outside the scope of the argument of this thesis which would, however, be incomplete without reference to those current factors which would seem to impact on the agenda for library and information science, and the requisite curricular responses to meet the challenges of the situation. Zaaiman *et al* address an important role for libraries in South Africa, viz. development (UNISA, 1988). At a more general, but related level, Nassimbeni (1988) provides an analysis of current socio-economic and political determinants of curriculum revision in library and information science in South Africa. Their contributions (among others) are suggestive of a new focus in the planning of library and information services and education for library and information science, a focus which will tend towards the conception characterized by McNeill (1977 : 19) as "social reconstructionist" which stresses social needs and social responsibility in an attempt to achieve reform and equity.

2.7 Summary

An attempt has been made in this conceptual analysis of professional education in general, and education for library and information science in particular, to do the following :

- highlight one of the central problems of professional education, viz. the relationship between theory and practice
- to demonstrate the inter-relatedness of the elements of the educational programme for library and information science
- to demonstrate the pervasiveness of the conceptual and practical links between the educational programme as a whole and fieldwork, an important component

CHAPTER 3

FIELDWORK

3.1 Provision of fieldwork

It is useful, before beginning an analysis of the rationale, aims, benefits and problems associated with fieldwork, to look at the prevailing practice in the U K, the U S A and South Africa.

3.1.1 United Kingdom

According to Edwards, fieldwork was only generally incorporated in British education programmes as late as 1964 with the revision of the Library Association syllabus (1977 : 76). The sub-committee set up by the Library Association Education Committee in 1969 found, in its survey of library schools, consensus about the desirability of the inclusion of a period of fieldwork in the educational programme, but because of a lack of uniformity of standards there were varying practices. It was felt that standards were necessary and that it was important to have "adequate numbers of school staff organize and supervise the fieldwork programme" (Edwards, 1972 : 4). The report of the sub-committee was adopted by the Library Association in 1971. Contrary to expectation that fieldwork would break down because of the reluctance of host librarians to participate, an analysis of the returns revealed that more than half the libraries already participating were prepared to accept a heavier load, and almost half the libraries not yet participating were

willing to do so if asked. A total of 391 libraries responded in this survey (Edwards, 1977 : 83).

However, in an article published in 1975, Froud, a member of the AAL (Association of Assistant Librarians) Student Committee, expressed disquiet about what they perceived as the anomalies in the situation of fieldwork in the U K. He was concerned that in some library schools there was no provision made for fieldwork although the Library Association had accepted the Report of the Sub-Committee on Staff Training in Libraries on library school fieldwork in 1971. The report recommended the inclusion of fieldwork as "an integral and compulsory element of education for librarianship" and suggested that Liaison and Training Officers be appointed to this end (Froud, 1975 : 8). The AAL Students' Committee had recommended in 1969 the establishment of the post of Liaison and Training Officer in the library schools to organize and oversee field visits and fieldwork (AAL Students' Committee, 1969 : 33). By 1966, two of the more prominent schools had already appointed liaison and training officers to plan and co-ordinate fieldwork programmes (Edwards, 1977 : 80). At the College of Librarianship Wales, fieldwork is regarded as important enough to warrant the establishment of six full-time liaison and training officers whose task it is to work with librarians to ensure that the fieldwork period ("a compulsory and integral part of the programme") is valuable and achieves its objective (Hogg, 1978 : 106). In 1985 there were 50 academic staff at the College of Librarianship Wales, the largest school of librarianship and information studies in the

U K and one of the largest in the world (College of Librarianship Wales, 1985 : 11).

Davinson, a prominent authority on education for library and information science, also suggested that there was reason for concern about the provision of fieldwork programmes. He argued that the principal reason for the inclusion of practical fieldwork by library schools "is to provide a sop to that professional opinion which has never quite reconciled itself to full-time [university] education for librarianship" (1976 : 240).

Yet, according to Edwards, "fieldwork has come a long way in ten years" (1977 : 86). An improvement in the quality of fieldwork in the U K, discernible since the publication of the 1971 Report of the Sub-Committee on Staff Training in Libraries of the Library Association Education Committee, can be ascribed to closer co-operation between academic and library staffs, on-site visits of supervisors, and the provision of printed guidance by the library schools (Edwards, 1977 : 89). The report found that the load was unevenly distributed and the larger libraries had the greater burden :

Among suggestions for a greater possible equalisation of the burden was that of designating libraries which made an unusually heavy or valuable contribution as "teaching or training libraries" and the provision of grants from central funds to enable them to expand their efforts on behalf of the profession as a whole (Edwards, 1977 : 68).

While there was some sympathy for the idea of compensation, it was rejected by the Library Advisory Council (Edwards, 1977 : 69). [It may be mentioned in passing that there has also been a proposal in South Africa that fieldwork programmes be organized regionally and that participating libraries be compensated (Fouché, 1974 : 194)]. The one-sidedness of the arrangement does present something of a problem. Prytherch expresses the view that the library school has little to offer in return and demands a lot from the host libraries (Prytherch, 1979 : 41).

In the United Kingdom, Prytherch carried out a very useful systematic study of the fieldwork programme as a component of professional education for library and information science (1979). In the study he documents the shifts in emphasis - from field to classroom and back again - in the U S A and the U K, and concludes that a firm solution has not yet been reached. He finds no evidence in the literature of a systematic attempt to evaluate fieldwork (1982(b) : 175). Prytherch does, however, detect a recent reversal of neglect of fieldwork of such note that he describes it as a "renaissance" (1982(b) : 175). His detection of a recent revival of interest is confirmed by Clough and Quarmby in the U K (1984 : 2).

3.1.2 United States of America

A comparable renewal of interest in the U S A is noted by Monroe (1981 : 57). This observation is supported by Witucke's survey of American library schools, a significant

number of whom stated that they were in the process of changing the fieldwork programmes - usually in terms of expansion or greater formalization (1981 : 87).

The development of fieldwork in the U S A has been comprehensively documented by Coburn (1980). Up until the late 1960s, fieldwork was more honoured in the breach than in the observance (Witucke, 1981 : 75). The Task Force on "Needs for Improvement of Professional Education in Library and Information Science" agreed that "library school fieldwork and internship programs are often administered on a haphazard basis" (Belzer & Brown, 1973 : 4). Conant, some years later, made similar observations about the defects in the fieldwork programmes (1980 : 36), as did Morehead (1980 : 45). Grotzinger and Rathbun both suggest that the reason that fieldwork suffered neglect was because of logistic and administrative problems rather than scepticism about its educational value (Grotzinger, 1971 : 338; Rathbun, 1973 : 99). Rothstein advanced the following reasons to account for the observed decline in importance of fieldwork in the American curricula :

- embarrassing vestiges of the "survival of the apprenticeship era"
 - poor organization
 - accreted connotation of its being opposed to theory
- (1968 : 217).

Williamson, in his influential Report of more than sixty years ago, noted that the benefits of fieldwork in relation to other

instructional methods had not been systematically studied (1923 : 57). At that early stage he criticized the approach of American library schools to fieldwork as not evincing a clear understanding of the underlying pedagogical principles involved. He also queried the need to spend so much time on an activity whose rationale appeared to be inadequately formulated. The time allocated to fieldwork was not determined scientifically (1923 : 53-4). He urged a decreased emphasis on fieldwork but acknowledged that it was an important method of instruction in the total educational programme (1923 : 139-40).

The Association of American Library Schools (AALS) carried out a survey in 1979/80 to establish the provision of programmes of fieldwork defined as "supervised work in a library or information agency" and not including "field trips as part of a class-based course". The results showed that only 7 of the 64 accredited schools did not provide opportunity for fieldwork experience at the masters level for which a credit was required. Only four schools required fieldwork as a compulsory component of the programme (Lawson, 1981 : 124). Alumni respondents in Conant's survey of American library education usually referred to the fieldwork programme (when it was offered) as a valued part of their educational experience (1980 : 101). Conant concluded that a supervised fieldwork programme is an

essential aspect of professional training, allowing the student to understand the relationships between theory and practice, to observe at first hand how the principles work, and to judge the inevitable gap between what professors say what ought to be and what is (1980 : 181).

3.1.3 South Africa

The position of fieldwork practice in South Africa has reached an interesting transitional phase, following the adoption by the Council of SAILIS and the publication of the *Guidelines for fieldwork* of the Committee for Education and Research of SAILIS (SAILIS. CER, 1984). This marks an important step in the attempt to standardize practices and to ensure that "fieldwork is an essential component of education for librarianship and information service and should form an integral part of the curriculum" (SAILIS. CER, 1984). The publication of the *Guidelines* is the result of a study of fieldwork in South Africa undertaken by the Committee for Education and Research of SAILIS in response to two motions adopted by SALA Annual Conferences in 1976 and 1978 respectively, viz.:

Council be requested to investigate ways and means for formal co-operation between libraries and departments of library science regarding fieldwork (SALA. Thirty-first Annual Conference, 1976, 1977 : 154) and

That the Committee for Education and Research be requested to take all possible measures to ensure that well planned fieldwork becomes an integral and compulsory element of training in library science. That standards and directives be drawn up with regard to fieldwork, that can be used to evaluate training (SALA, 1978 : 19).

In 1980 the Committee distributed a questionnaire to libraries and library schools in an attempt to establish opinions and practices regarding fieldwork in South Africa. Their investigations resulted in the the *Guidelines* being drawn up and subsequently adopted. These *Guidelines* were subsequently incorporated in the official SAILIS *Standards for education for library and information science* (1987).

In 1973 Viljoen had found that the liaison between libraries and library schools in respect of fieldwork was not well organized and that in some cases there was no formal liaison . In his survey, it appeared that six out of nine library schools expected a written report by the host library on the student's performance and that three provided a prescribed form for this purpose (1973 : 330). Seven of the nine South African library school respondents in his survey regarded fieldwork as desirable and of value to the student, but most urged an improvement in the format and presentation of this component of the educational programme (Viljoen, 1973 : 331). The practice in South African library schools regarding fieldwork was investigated in 1979 by Fouché, Roux and Thirion (1980). The investigation revealed that in the Lower Diploma courses offered, only three out of twelve library schools surveyed did not have a compulsory fieldwork session. The offerings ranged from three to six weeks. In the Higher Diploma courses, only three out of fourteen library schools surveyed did not require a compulsory fieldwork session. The duration ranged from three to six weeks. In the case of Bachelor of Library and Information Science courses, only four

out of ten schools did not require a compulsory fieldwork session. The sessions ranged from two to six weeks (Fouché, Roux & Thirion, 1980 : 63-78). In Viljoen's earlier investigation, the two universities that had abolished the fieldwork programme at the time (viz. Pretoria and UNISA) advanced the following reasons :

- students are not given an opportunity to do useful work but are employed in clerical or trifling tasks such as packing books away; they therefore learn little and gain a distorted impression of library work
- the universities have no control over the way in which fieldwork is offered (Viljoen, 1973 : 331).

The situation at Pretoria University has now changed. The new curriculum, which incorporates compulsory fieldwork, was implemented in 1980 (Van Brakel, 1984).

Various writers commenting on the place of fieldwork in the South African context had concluded that to derive greater benefits there should be closer liaison and a clear mutual understanding about fieldwork between universities and practitioners and that the professional association might play a leading role in this respect (Viljoen, 1973 : 386). The *Guidelines* should go a long way towards fostering closer co-operation and clearer understanding of respective roles.

3.2 The problematic of fieldwork

Since the publication of Williamson's Report in the United States considerable debate on the best means of reconciling theory and practice has by no means resolved the question that has "enjoyed a long, ill-defined history" (Morehead, 1973 : 119). One of the problems bedevilling the debate has been the lack of definition and a confusion about what constitutes theory and what constitutes practice. Since the beginning of formalized library education one of the persistent problems has been the "dichotomy between the practical and theoretical sides of teaching" (Barker, 1982 : 43). The terminology is confusing - the practical element is variously described as practicum, fieldwork, practice work, laboratory work and clinical experience; (in Afrikaans the term "praktykervaring" has been adopted by SAILIS : i.e. "experience in practice").

In the literature there is sufficient evidence that the subject of fieldwork offers continuing concern to the profession. There is concern about the apparent marginality of the fieldwork programme; that it is no more than a nugatory exercise. Van Brakel concludes from his study that the fieldwork programme is viewed not so much as a fully fledged component of library education, but rather as a separate, (and sometimes essential), appendage that is applied with varying degrees of success (1982 : 140). It is apparent that as a theoretical and practical issue today it commands as much contentious attention as ever, although much of the literature on fieldwork is hortatory and speculative.

In spite of evidence of an increase in interest in the topic, contradictory attitudes on the part of educators and practitioners have been reported (Richardson & Hernon, 1981 : 287). The subject remains something of a conundrum : it appears to have a popular appeal, but its benefits are presumed and have not really been tested. It is often a polite convention to iterate the advantages of practical experience and the heuristic possibilities of a fieldwork programme, without providing any firm evidence to support the assumption. According to Stueart, it remains an unresolved issue whether or not the fieldwork programme is a necessary and viable component of professional education for librarianship (1981 : 1990).

Davinson is also sceptical about the value of fieldwork, because it has not been unambiguously demonstrated that its inclusion is worthwhile and he argues that there is still a need to resolve the question of what such field experience is designed to achieve (1976 : 239).

3.3 Educational purpose and objectives

From Prytherch's investigation it emerged that the educational purpose and objectives were far from clearly agreed upon and that those objectives revealed in the literature were vague (1982(b) : 173-5). His observations are borne out in the present study where an analysis of articulated objectives of various fieldwork programmes and the expositions of the subject yielded evidence of ambiguity and obscurity of aims and limited conceptual clarity. Witucke suggests that the

topic has been neglected "because we know so little about how students differ as a result of the experience or lack of experience" (1976 : 172). The reason for the uncertainties is a lack of sustained and systematic inquiry into the pedagogy of fieldwork - as suggested by the proportion of expositions relying on anecdotal evidence as opposed to systematic studies. What is required is a clear and common understanding of the aims, objectives and underlying pedagogical principles of the fieldwork programme ; as a consequence one should be able to maximize the educational value of the experience. It is important to establish whether and to what extent fieldwork has an intelligibly substantive function. And having identified such a function, ways and means of shaping practice to achieve the aims should be devised.

It is possible to cull the following specific objectives of the fieldwork programme from statements in the literature :

- to demonstrate and allow for the practice of library routines
- to present material that is less easily presented in a lecture
- to illustrate and amplify lecture material
- to develop manipulative skills
- to relate theory to practice
- to allow the student to visualize the application and relevance of a particular concept to a context
- to foster an understanding of concepts related to the profession

- to apply principles taught in class and to exercise judgment
- to enlarge the student's experience of professional attitudes and views and the social and communicative aspects of the profession
- to offer a range of social and professional connections that library schools are unable to provide (an important aspect in view of the social and communicative dimensions of the profession)
- to test the student's ideas
- to familiarize the student with the tools and technology of the profession
- to encourage independent thinking
- to introduce problems and allow students to solve them
- to encourage initiative and responsibility
- to allow for the practice of communication and social skills
- to encourage the ability to work with others, and to be supervised by others
- to allow for interaction with users
- to allow students to gain experience of and a feel for the working environment
- to encourage self-confidence
- to test expectations against reality
- to extend the student's experience of and to offer a perspective on libraries
- to assist the library school to evaluate the student, particularly from an affective point of

view (Boll, 1972; Conant, 1980; Edwards, 1977; Hempstead, 1971; Neill, 1975; Prytherch, 1979 & 1986; Ward, 1973;)

A taxonomy of these objectives will reveal that some of them relate to the cognitive sphere, while others relate to the affective domain. Cognitive objectives are defined by Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia as follows :

Objectives which emphasise remembering or reproducing something which has presumably been learned, as well as objectives which involve the solving of some intellectual task for which the individual has to determine the essential problem and then re-order given material or combine it with ideas, methods or procedures previously learned. Cognitive objectives vary from simple recall of material learned to highly original and creative ways of combining and synthesising new ideas and materials (1964 : 6).

They define affective objectives as those which

...emphasise a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience. We found a large number of such objectives in the literature expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciations, values, and emotional sets or biases (1964 : 7).

It is clear, too, from a scrutiny of the list detailed above, that while the items are described as objectives, many of them are mere consequences of the experience regardless of intentionality, rather than formally stated educational objectives. It is also difficult to classify absolutely each item into a definite category of either cognitive or affective

because of the inter-relatedness of attitudes and cognitive behaviour. There is general agreement, moreover, that measurement of affective objectives is more difficult than the assessment of cognitive behaviour.

Not all of these instrumental and affective objectives can be met solely in fieldwork. Fieldwork as such would have to be supplemented by other methods (e.g laboratory sessions, practical assignments, compilation of bibliographies, cataloguing and classification practicals).

It is possible from an analysis of the literature on the subject to arrive at a consensual rationale for fieldwork. The most prominent aim is the linking of theory to practice (Prytherch, 1982(b) : 174). A rationale for fieldwork can be sought both empirically and in learning theory, particularly the field of experiential learning. Houle quotes John Stuart Mill as enunciating clearly and profoundly the distinction between academic learning and experiential learning and his plea for their harmonious combination in university education (1976 : 27). Experiential learning has been defined by Keeton quite simply as "learning as it occurs outside of classrooms" (1976 : 5). The fieldwork experience is one of many opportunities offered to the student for experiential learning.

Another significant aim of the fieldwork programme is to allow the student the opportunity of testing himself in real-time conditions that require real decisions. However, in order

that the student might derive the maximum educational benefits, it is necessary that s/he receive feedback on the consequence of decisions and actions (Schein, 1972 : 118). The Association of British Library Schools articulated the main objective of fieldwork in the following way :

Its primary function is to expose students to the practicalities of librarianship in order that they may learn by both doing and observing and also that their suitability for the profession may be tested (Edwards, 1977 : 82).

Sabor characterizes fieldwork as a "secondary didactic procedure" (1969 : 99). Care should then be taken to define its relationship with the primary procedure and to actualize the link between the two. This is one of the greatest problems of the theory/practice relationship. Saunders's concern for the inclusion of fieldwork in the programme was that in order to optimize the impact of the theoretical principles of librarianship, exposure to practice and observation of the operation of principles will illuminate the knowledge gained in library schools. The ideal vehicle for this is fieldwork (1971 : 230). One of the underlying assumptions that informs the practice of including fieldwork in the programme is predicated on the belief that a good way of learning to be like a good librarian is by observation - "sitting with Nellie", an approach formulated by Stones and Morris in the context of practice teaching (1972 : 3). This pedagogical principle has enjoyed considerable allegiance in education for library and information science and was expressly manifest in the early apprenticeship style of

education, vestigial traces of which linger on in some conceptualizations of fieldwork. The "sitting with Nellie" conception of fieldwork assumes a basically conservative function for fieldwork where the student is expected to learn, follow and fit into the system and given little opportunity to exercise individual or creative skills.

One of the frequent comments from students is that they need to translate cognitively grasped knowledge into action or to concretize it in a real situation. Coleman suggests that such learning is incomplete and that the final stage would be a translation of the symbolic framework of comprehension and cognition into a framework of a concrete sequence of actions (1976 : 56). The real context for the student to complete his learning is that offered by the practical component in the programme : viz. fieldwork and practical assignments.

In an elaborated description and analysis of educational aims and objectives (based on Bloom's taxonomy), Burrell matched learning experiences to desired goals. He assigned to fieldwork the affective value of allowing the students to develop their sensitivity to the presence and problems of others and allowing them the opportunity and desire to respond to them, and to recognize, appreciate and adopt the relevant values in an area of service (1983 : 250).

In their study of educational programmes for the professions, Warner, Houston and Cooper found that the clinical or field experience was normally considered as a specified period of

time rather than a specified range of skills. The emphasis was on the provision of opportunities for the students "to learn and apply regularized modes of professional behavior : the decision-making processes as circumscribed by the procedures of the particular profession" (1977 : 15). One of the aims formulated by the SAILIS *Guidelines* refers to "the development of a sense of professional identity through practical experience" (SAILIS, 1987 : 26). In this sense it is seen as a period of induction into the profession; but, as such, the first phase of induction. (Cf Section 2.4.5.4 for a discussion of the concept of professional socialization in the context of professional education.)

3.4 Educational rationale

In order to derive an educational theory for fieldwork it is necessary to approach foundational works in disciplines other than library and information science where the arguments for its adoption have tended to be subjective and the assumptions about its value have remained untested.

3.4.1 "Verstehen"

The Weberian concept of "verstehen" prompts a constructive line of inquiry. This concept has connotations of interpretive, reflective understanding which can be applied to social discourse (Sayer, 1984 : 39). Understanding ("verstehen") can be encouraged by direct human contact with the agencies, activities and problems that are the objects of study. This method of inquiry originated in the social sciences as a means of experiencing, understanding and

interpreting social reality. It is a construct that is useful and supportive of the experiential model of learning and, by extension, fieldwork. It encapsulates that cluster of activities and experiences in a fieldwork session - cognitive, affective and psycho-motor - that provides a coherent framework to assist understanding in the Weberian sense.

3.4.2 Educational praxis

Small develops the concept of "educational praxis" in the theory of education. He discusses the meaning of praxis from the Marxian as a transforming and critical activity involving evaluation, choice and decision as opposed to some kinds of human activity that are habitual and unreflective (1978 : 218). Excluded from the category of praxis are mechanical, routine activities and submissive actions performed in response to authority (1978 : 219). The value of this concept is in the functional relationship between theory and action - that praxis has a unifying function of linking theory and action and that it is informed by understanding, will and reflection.

The title of a book edited by Boud, Keogh and Walker, *Reflection : turning experience into learning* (1985) encapsulates a key concept in professional education : the importance of reflection and analysis concerning experience as a means of transforming it into knowledge. Reflection can be both personal and mediated through group discussion, a very effective method. Reflection entails "recreating, analysing and evaluating experience and [it] facilitates behavioural

outcomes" (Usher, 1986 : 248) and it can thus be a very effective integrative mechanism for integrating theory and experiential learning. The relevance of this concept for the effective fieldwork programme will be discussed in Section 3.9.5.2.

3.4.3 Personal knowledge

Michael Polanyi's theory of the generation of personal knowledge is a serviceable foundational work and relevant to the formulation of a theory or model of fieldwork (1962). He argues, in his analysis of knowledge embedded in skills, that the neophyte's observation of the master assimilates rules which cannot be explicitly articulated by the master himself (1962 : 53). This ineffable knowledge is acquired by the absorption of a variety of cues through subsidiary rather than focal awareness. To illustrate this process he cites as examples the transmission of skills from master to apprentice in the practical courses followed by students of chemistry, biology and medicine (1962 : 55). Because the particulars of the skill are logically unspecifiable they have to be observed as an integrated operation carried out by the master and then imitated (1962 : 56). The practice is not mere repetition. Rather

it is a structural change achieved by a repeated mental effort aiming at the instrumentalization of certain things and actions in the service of some purpose (1962 : 62).

3.4.4 Discovery and experiential learning

The educational rationale of fieldwork is based mainly on the important principle of learning theory - that of discovery and experiential learning. Among the educational theorists whose ideas on the subject have useful applications are Bruner (1963; 1966); Freire (1984); Kolb and Fry (1975), Olson and Bruner (1974); Rogers (1969); Steinaker and Bell (1969).

Kolb and Fry provide a helpful exposition of the experiential learning model. The significance of the model is that learning and change (modified behaviour) occur as a result of the integration of a real concrete experience with cognitive processes of conceptual analysis and comprehension. It provides the means whereby socio-emotional and cognitive aspects of learning can be integrated (Kolb & Fry, 1975 : 34, 56), thus involving the whole person and enhancing the chances of significant learning. It is widely recognized that total dependence on the lecture as a method of teaching is ill-advised because it does not allow for much student participation. Kilmann demonstrates, by reference to a number of studies, that student-centred teaching is more successful in encouraging critical thinking (1974 : 337-8). Most effective learning occurs when the student is actively engaged. As Tyler succinctly notes, "It is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does" (1950 : 41).

Freire has also emphasized the importance of the student's engagement in his learning as an important pedagogical principle. He makes his comments in the context of literacy

campaigns, but a consideration of his argument will demonstrate the wider significance and application :

Teachers and students...co-intent on reality, are both subjects, not only in the task of unveiling that reality, and thereby coming to know it critically, but in the task of re-creating that knowledge (Freire, 1984 : 546).

Another important pedagogical principle emerges from this extract (and informs a lot of his writing), namely reciprocity. The teacher learns from the experience and is not merely engaged in teaching. Carl Rogers is also a proponent of this principle. He views the teacher not so much as an instructor but as a facilitator who arranges conditions that will lead to significant and self-directed learning. The objective of the teacher is to develop a group, including the teacher, into a community of learners who all share the experience (Patterson, 1977 : 304). This reciprocity and joint participation is a constitutive dimension of fieldwork practice, in its ideal expression.

Olson's and Bruner's distinction between direct encounter learning and mediated experience is a serviceable one for the purpose of constructing an educational model (1974). Direct encounter learning is a product of one's direct and contingent experience, whereas in a mediated experience learning occurs either by way of observation or through symbolically coded information - speech, books, films, etc. (1974 : 128-131). They label these three modes of experience respectively as

enactive (action, participation), iconic (related to models) and symbolic (speech and other symbolic systems) (1974 : 132).

A great deal of what is learned through the enactive mode is haphazard, random and disparate. For the purpose of instruction and planned learning the teacher can, through intervention, arrange an environment and plan activities with the intention of facilitating learning and understanding in the first mode. The environment can be ordered and pre-arranged to make the consequences meaningful and safe (1974 : 134). The teacher can exploit the second mode of learning by observation by providing models and feedback. The third mode (symbolic) will be facilitated by the teacher presenting facts, opinions and explanations by means of telling or referring to readings (1974 : 134).

These models can be used to analyse the typical patterns found in education for library and information science. The first two modes will find their expression in field-based experience and demonstration in laboratory-like situations and the third will constitute those activities dealing with the transmission of the theoretical components of the programme.

In order to achieve the maximum effect and optimal learning in the first mode attention will be paid to "guided discovery" - i.e. the student must be guided in the the selection of activities and aspects of significance and in interpretation. Opportunities for reflection and analysis are important dimensions of this type of learning. The other mode - that of

demonstration, observation and modelling - is also prominent in fieldwork :

Learning through modelling depends precisely on the capacity not so much to imitate directly as to construct behaviour from already mastered constituent acts in order to match selected features of the model - a procedure more like paraphrasing than imitating (Olson & Bruner, 1974 : 138).

The demonstration should clarify critical decisions between alternatives presented to the actor and how to make the selection (Olson & Bruner, 1974 : 138).

The work of Steinaker and Bell (1979) is a significant contribution to the theory of experiential learning. The authors provide a useful analysis of experience-based learning by constructing a taxonomy which is both a theoretical construct and a guide to teachers in the design of curricula and the organization of learning experiences. Theirs is a conceptualization of the various phases in experiential learning that permits understanding of the process and careful planning.

They delineate and interpret five successive levels discernible in an experience : the working definition they accept of experience is that of Webster's dictionary : "an actual living through of an event or events" (Steinaker & Bell, 1977 : 8). The authors' categories are as follows :

- Exposure : consciousness of an experience
- Participation : the decision to become involved in the experience
- Identification : the coming together of the learner and the idea in an emotional and intellectual context
- Internalization : greater impact on the learner
- Dissemination : the participant informs others of the experience and urges others to participate (1977 : 10 -11).

The authors see their taxonomy of the experiential domain as relating to and amplifying the affective and cognitive taxonomies of Krathwohl et al (1964) and Bloom (1956). A study of the successive stages will reveal that both affective and cognitive learning takes place.

While it is analytically useful to have the various stages delineated, it becomes obvious that they are not necessarily fixed and that there will be a certain amount of fluidity in the activities related to them. The taxonomy is thus not reductionist, and the stages are not discrete entities. It is possible, bearing these observations in mind, to apply their taxonomy to the planning of a fieldwork experience :

- Exposure : Motivate the students. Brief them about the possibilities of field experience and the opportunities presented by the particular placement
- Participation : This is the stage at which the student engages in the activity and explores the

possibilities of the situation. The supervisor's role is important here in guiding the student and in sustaining the interest of the student.

- Identification : During this stage the learner begins to relate what he has learned to his own ideas and other experiences and starts to discern its value and to gain insights.
- Internalization : This occurs when the learning permeates other aspects of the student's life and is incorporated. The experience can at this stage modify attitudes and beliefs. There is a convergence of intellectual and emotional dimensions of the learning experience. By this stage the learner is taking greater responsibility for his progress.
- Dissemination : This represents the highest level of the experience. The learner wishes to share his experience and to test and explore his findings and insights. The dissemination could take the form of a written report to be discussed at a seminar.

Bruner has contributed significantly to the move away from traditional expository styles of teaching to student involvement and an emphasis on the importance of learning by discovery (1963; 1966), an idea later to be developed by Kolb and Fry (1975) into their experiential learning model. Bruner's theory of education as process is widely accepted as an important and seminal position paper on educational theory. The value of learning by discovery is that it promotes

thought, encourages problem solving and prompts students to seek connections and find their own solutions :

Discovery in learning has precisely the effect upon the learner of leading him to be a constructionist, to organize what he is encountering in a manner not only designed to discover regularity and relatedness, but also to avoid the kind of information drift that fails to keep account of the uses to which information might have been put (Bruner, 1965 : 612).

The re-assessment of the heuristic possibilities of field-based experience in education owes its currency in part to Bruner's conceptualization of education as a process rather than a product. However, the assumption that mere exposure to a fieldwork experience will enhance learning by discovery is, of course, simplistic. As Bruner points out "discovery, like surprise, favours the well-prepared mind" (1965 : 607). Friedlander is cautious about over-emphasizing the potential benefits derived without careful planning and feedback from the teacher. The teacher needs to reinforce the new material learned so that the concepts, insights and facts can be synthesized successfully into the student's cognitive store. "Without these refining and conserving operations that can stem from the teacher's guidance, the discovery itself is likely to be of limited value" (Friedlander, 1965 : 30). (Cf Section 3.9.5 which elaborates the role of feedback in fieldwork.)

This cautionary note about preparedness for the experience was articulated by Dewey, that most influential educational

theorist and philosopher. While pleading for the proper place of experience and practice in education, he warns that not all experience is educative and that experience randomly selected and casually linked will have no positive effect and "may artificially generate dispersive, disintegrated, centrifugal habits" (1938 : 26). What he is advocating is coherent experience which places a burden on the educator to plan and integrate the experience offered to the student. As Dewey points out, experience involves a process of trying, or testing, and undergoing and that the two should be connected - in the undergoing the student should learn of the consequences of action and the relationship between doing and undergoing (1926 : 163). Echoes of this concern are to be found in Small's educational praxis (cf Section 3.4.2). Dewey's concern is characteristic of his pursuit of unifying thought and action. He was unhappy about dualisms and denied the distinction between the practical and theoretical and, as a Hegelian, tried to reconcile this dichotomy (1926 : 164-5). (Cf treatment of this educational conundrum in Section 2.5.3.)

In his attempt to correct the error in the dualistic way of perceiving things and attempting to reconcile theory and practice, Dewey proposed "a new philosophy of experience and knowledge, a philosophy which no longer puts experience in opposition to rational knowledge and explanation" (1926 : 309). His approach provides a useful conceptual framework for the debate about the problematic relationship between theory and practice in professional education. However, in appealing to Dewey's authority for the desirability of reconciling the

"either-or-ness" of much educational thinking, it is well to beware of the caveat in his own observation that "many of his followers - especially among educators - either did not understand his work or garbled just enough to use for their own purpose" (Dworkin, 1959 : 14).

3.5 Comparison with teacher education

It is productive to examine practices regarding field experience in comparable professional education programmes for the insights that they offer. The case of teacher education is instructive. It is interesting to note that many of the stated aims, observations and problems experienced in teacher education are similar to those found in education for library and information science. It is widely accepted in teacher preparation programmes that field or clinical experience (practice teaching) is an essential element (Conant, 1963 : 45). In spite of the observed negative and unplanned effects of the field experience (e.g. a greater tendency to authoritarianism) researchers in teacher education agree that the field experience is a useful practical and important component (Becher & Ade, 1982 : 24). Lortie has demonstrated that the clinical experience is the single most widely accepted and approved component of professional education for teaching (1975). Most teacher education programmes in the U S A today include substantially more field experience than those of twenty or even ten years ago because of the consensus of opinion among students, teachers and educators of teachers that field experience is important (Steer, 1979 : 63).

As in the fieldwork component of education for library and information science, there is a comparable lack of clarity in teacher education about the tested effects of field experience on academic achievement or career preparation. Studies in educational research on the effectiveness for increasing knowledge about learning and teaching have produced inconclusive results (Ross, Hughes & Hill, 1981 : 106). The difficulty in trying to assess the effects of the clinical experience is to distinguish learning from and during this experience and learning from other sources, e.g. lectures, assignments, private reading, etc. (Ross, Hughes & Hill, 1981 : 106). The same problem will occur in trying to evaluate the effects of fieldwork experience in library and information science education and to disaggregate these effects from all the other factors involved in learning. Zeichner notes that in teacher education no attempts have been made to identify what kinds of field experience have observable positive effects (1980(b) : 45). The analysis of the definitions of clinical experience in teacher training undertaken by Warner, Houston and Cooper reveals an emphasis on activities designed to promote analytical, rational and professional behaviour in the trainee (1977 : 17). It was found that actual observation and treatment of clients (i.e. pupils) is an important criterion in the clinical experience (Warner, Houston & Cooper, 1977 : 17).

The problem of the maintenance of adequate liaison is also an issue in teacher training. In her researches into clinical experience in teacher training, Cope found that there was a

very real difficulty in maintaining satisfactory liaison between the schools and the training institutions. She warns against the training institutions' handing over the responsibility of teaching practice to the co-operating schools since this step might lead to an undesirable dichotomy between theory and practice (Cope, 1972; quoted in Lomax, 1972 : 310).

Research into clinical experience in teacher training has shown that there are both positive and negative consequences of the programme (Zeichner, 1980(b) : 46). Studies have also shown that the field experience contributes to the development of utilitarian perspectives which separate the activity from its ethical and political dimensions :

What students appear to learn during the field-based experiences is often in conflict with the expressed intentions of those in both the schools and the universities and indicates that these experiences are often miseducative rather than helpful (Zeichner, 1980(b) : 51).

The actual and latent effects (e.g. rejection of theory) are in conflict with the intended goals (e.g. illumination of theory) and the presumed beneficial effects. The argument is also that the experience merely socializes prospective teachers into the conservative and established structures of school practice (Zeichner, 1980 : 45). In their study of the clinical experience in teacher training, Hoy and Rees found it a powerful instrument in the "bureaucratic socialization" of students, emphasizing the values of conformity, impersonality, subordination and bureaucratic loyalty (1977 : 23). It could

be speculated that this is likewise a danger in fieldwork programmes because libraries exhibit the Weberian characteristics of bureaucracy, viz. :

- hierarchy of authority
- impersonality
- division of labour
- formulated rules
- work regulations (Hoy & Rees, 1977 : 23).

Further support for the validity of the analogous position with respect to bureaucracy and practice in these two professions is evident from a recent American inquiry into the effect of bureaucracy on various professions which found that those who experienced most negative effects were teachers and librarians (Wilson, 1986 : 485). However, it should be noted that the feature of bureaucracy is present in these two cases rather by the nature of employment practices and institutional affiliation than as a necessarily inherent characteristic.

Lasley and Applegate also found that the socialization of student takes place during the field experience - but that the socialization was primarily bureaucratic, showing the student what it means to function in the school bureaucracy (1982 : 5). This does not negate the beneficial effects of field experience - rather, it constitutes a warning to those responsible for the fieldwork programme that the experience should be carefully planned and supervised to ensure the

achievement of more productive goals than mere bureaucratic orientation.

The problem of evaluation and consequences of certification is a prominent concern in teaching practice too. The source of the difficulty is the attempt to assess and grade the student's performance in the clinical component of the programme so that the assessment can be a meaningful part of the entire certification procedure (Stones, 1984). The problem is that the performance criteria are rarely explicit and that both cognitive and affective learning takes place. Learning in the affective domain is particularly difficult to test and the educators are obliged to rely on the subjective assessment of the supervisor. In this context, Stones points out that in teacher education where a credit in teaching practice is a qualifying criterion for passing, very few students fail teaching practice and those that do can "retake" their teaching practice assessment (1984 : 17).

3.6 Benefits of fieldwork

It is possible, from an analysis of the literature, to report on the perceived benefits of the fieldwork programme from the perspective of students, practitioners in the field and the library schools. Some of the effects are incidental and tangential benefits. According to Neill, Rothstein's urging to include it in the curriculum was based on student opinion. The students felt that it provides a refreshing change of pace, that it enlarges their view, that it builds up their

confidence and that it relates theory to actuality (1975 : 1982). In the U K students have expressed themselves forcefully on the value of including fieldwork in the programme of studies (AAL. Students' Committee, 1969 : 32; Froud, 1975 : 8). The AAL Students' Committee has indicated that the experience is of value to the student insofar as it provides :

- a welcome change from the classroom
- an opportunity to see librarianship in practice
- widening of the students' experience
- clarification of the students' ideas about their future career path
- provision of valuable professional contacts (AAL. Students' Committee, 1969 : 32).

Conant reports that the student respondents in his survey who had been exposed to the practice of fieldwork appreciated its value and that "two-thirds of the thirty-six [alumni] respondents" spontaneously drew attention to the need for a period of fieldwork (1980 : 101). Conant quotes the comment of Dean Robert Hayes of University of California Los Angeles : it promotes "a high level of self-motivation, self-direction, and self-responsibility" (1980 : 36). Van Deusen, in his earlier survey of thirty-four accredited library schools in the U S A, also refers to the growth of confidence and professional enthusiasm as a positive result of the fieldwork programme, a useful trial period for graduates going into "one-man" libraries as their first position (1946 : 252).

The other affective benefit has already been referred to in Section 3.3 which deals with aims and objectives, viz. the effect of socialization of the students and the cultivation of professional attitudes. The experience allows them to observe and interact with professionals and to experience the environment of professional practice. One of the dominant themes of professional education is the socialization process (Cf Section 2.4.5.4). Simpson, with reference to student nurses, makes the following hypothesis :

Socialization into a profession takes place in three analytically distinct phases, each involving some learning of the cultural content of the role and some self-identification with it. During the first phase, the person shifts his attention from the broad societally derived goals which led him to choose the profession to the goal of proficiency in specific work tasks. During the second, certain significant others in the work milieu become his main reference group. Third, he internalises the values of the occupational group and adopts the behaviours it prescribes. These three may overlap, but in general they constitute a sequence (1967 : 47).

This is a serviceable explanation of the process because it points to the role that fieldwork might play in this regard. It is evident from his analysis that fieldwork can make some contribution in the first two stages and that the third phase is an ongoing and continuing phase during which the professional grows and progresses towards maturity.

Although these aims are articulated for the fieldwork programme, and the benefits of positive professional socialization claimed in the professional literature, this is

an aspect of professional education for library and information science that has not been systematically studied : a surprising lacuna considering the importance ascribed to it in the general literature of professional education, and teacher education (Cf Olesen & Whittaker, 1968; Zeichner, 1980(b)).

Thus far, the discussion of benefits has centred on those accruing to the students. But, as many commentators have pointed out, there are advantages to the host organization as well. The profession is afforded the opportunity of involvement with the education of future practitioners and channels of communication are opened and maintained. Practising librarians who act as supervisors are afforded the opportunity of input into the co-operative educational venture (Jones, 1976 : 71). There is a widely held assumption that the organized professional community is interested in and involved with professional education (SALA, 1979 : 3). (Cf the notion of a partnership in professional education between educators and practitioners discussed in Sections 2.4.4 and 2.6.1.)

Prytherch suggests that the notion of the student being something of a burden to be borne by the host library cannot be regarded as valid (1982(b) : 174). In a research project reported by Olson *et al* students played an effective role and were able to contribute to the research being conducted (1972 : 233). Vaillancourt and Whalen, and Coplen and Regen have also reported on the completion of useful projects

related to the library's problems by students on a fieldwork placement (1973 : 495; 1981 : 36). This is consistent with a more progressive theory of learning, which attempts to unify the dichotomy of learner/teacher and which appreciates and promotes the interactive roles (cf Freire's pedagogy referred to in Section 2.4.4).

In the field placement reported by Vallaincourt and Whalen, host librarians felt that the students' presence and questioning afforded them the opportunity of re-examination and re-assessment of procedures which, in some cases, led to their modification (1973 : 496). The necessity of articulating and explaining the aims and objectives of a particular library and its organizational structure will require scrutiny of these elements, and in some cases, re-evaluation and redefinition. Commenting on the mutuality of the benefits, Coplen and Regan describe the process of planning the placement and describing the library and its activities and policies as "a stimulating experience for the librarian and library staff involved" (1981 : 32). Edwards suggests that an economic use of a fieldwork training programme offered by a host library would be to modify such a programme to be used as an in-service training programme for new employees (1977 : 76).

It is self-evident that the host library might benefit in terms of the potential of recruiting likely candidates for future positions. That this has been a practice is borne out by Williamson's stricture on the use of fieldwork as a means

for libraries to gain information about a student for possible recruitment. He questioned whether it was proper for the library schools to use so much of the students' time to assess their potential for professional success (1923 : 59). While it would be perhaps unjustifiable to incorporate this as one of the objectives, it remains an undeniable (albeit unplanned) benefit to the host library.

The benefit to the library school will be that of facilitating "a reliable assessment of students' achievements in an operational environment" (SAILIS, 1987 : 26). In addition, it is a means of discovering curricular lacunae and making necessary adjustments in the curriculum (Van Deusen, 1946 : 253). It is also a vehicle for promoting the joint partnership between educators and practitioners referred to earlier in this section.

3.7 Problems associated with the fieldwork programme

Many commentators have referred to the obtrusive weaknesses of the fieldwork programme and to the danger of its becoming an irrelevant organizational ritual. In 1974 Fouché noted a decline in the use of the practical component both in South Africa and overseas and suggested that the reason for this was the inability to solve the practical problems associated with the fieldwork programme (1974 : 194). Many of the constraints are generated by problems of economy and organization.

3.7.1 Administrative problems

Many writers have identified administrative problems as being the significant barriers to the most effective utilization of the fieldwork programme (Prytherch, 1979 : 38). Grotzinger's conclusion was that administrative difficulties and time constraints have inhibited the successful exploitation of the fieldwork programme (1971 : 338).

Stallman and Conant have also found that the practical difficulties of timetabling, poor organization and faulty co-ordination between libraries and library schools are the main obstacles to the initiation and maintenance of successful fieldwork programmes. Their findings suggest that these logistic constraints rather than an inherent inadequacy in the educational concept militated against its success (Conant, 1980 : 35; Stallman, 1954 : 11). These conclusions emerging from studies based in the United States are borne out by Edwards in his findings related to practices in the United Kingdom : viz. lack of time (expanding subject content) in the timetable and lack of funds necessary to support a comprehensive and intensive programme (1977 : 77). The exigencies of the timetable do not allow simultaneous instruction in the library and in the classroom and the result is the frequent imposition of arbitrary timing of the learning experiences.

3.7.2 Funds and staffing

One of the factors militating against successful results or productive outcomes is the lack of funds and staffing resources to employ competent supervisors of fieldwork (Vann, 1971 : 151). This limiting condition has been recognized in the three countries under review, viz. United Kingdom, United States and South Africa. There is no easy solution because of the financial constraints experienced by libraries and library schools in these countries. Because of geographical location, a given library school may not have a wide variety of institutions from which to select for the placement of students and a heavy burden may fall on some of the bigger libraries (Van Brakel, 1982 : 145).

From the students' perspective, it appears that their uncertain or unexplained status in the host institution is a source of ambiguity and confusion - for example, are they expected to observe or participate (Prytherch, 1979 : 40)? The possibility of conflict arises between observation and analysis requirements, for example for the completion of a student report and the need for direct experience. Prytherch suggests that these are two distinct processes and that they are a source of confusion to the student who might be uncertain of the relative importance and of time to be allocated to each activity. The uncertainty is compounded if the host librarians are not specifically briefed about the time to be allocated for each and make their own decisions (Prytherch, 1986 : 146).

3.7.3 Objectives

The lack of mutually defined and understood objectives can result in a haphazard approach to the fieldwork programme (Manaka, 1982 : 150). The following questions prompted by an examination of the literature by the researcher illustrate the lack of clarity :

- Is the student to observe criterial qualities of what constitutes an excellent librarian ?
- Is the student to observe how a good library/information centre works ?
- Is the student to observe and experience the interface between the user and the library or information service ?
- Is the student to be critically observant of the practice that he encounters, or conforming ?
- Is the university-based education supportive of existing structures and practice, critical or offering alternative or advanced views ?
- How does the student reconcile dissonance between what has been taught in the classroom and what he experiences in his fieldwork placement ?

If one accepts the institutional role in fieldwork of occupational socialization with the library school legitimating the role by exposing the students to these influences, it is not an idle question to ask whether a desirable cluster of attitudes and norms is indeed being cultivated.

These questions that relate to affective outcomes (encompassing professional attitudes and values) in the light of findings discussed in Section 2.6.1 regarding the formative influence of the university's mission and departmental ethos on the student's learning and attitudes both in the academic and professional spheres. Also relevant in this section is the discussion of the relationship between the university and its community which also is a factor in the formation of professional values.

If the fieldwork exercise is to be more than a formal one, questions such as the potential of conflict between traditional and emergent attitudes are relevant. How is the student prepared and briefed to cope with the new experience? To what extent are the supervising host librarians briefed about what is required and how much they can expect of the student? (New, 1978 : 94) The conventional view of socialization is the process by which the initiate acquires the values, attitudes, skills and interests of the group which he aspires to join (Cf Simpson's discussion of professional socialization in Section 3.6).

In the South African context, a problem arises in trying to establish whether there is a consensual model of professionally held attitudes, beliefs and values in library and information science - a particularly elusive definition in a divided society such as ours where conflict is evident in many professions which are witnessing the challenge of emerging alternative groupings of professional interests not

catered for in the longer established professional associations. In the case of library and information science there are dissident views and conflict in areas such as censorship which illustrates the division of opinion on a fundamental matter and not a mere issue of detail (Cf Merrett, 1985). There has, however, been some progress towards the formulation and refinement of a code of ethics for library and information workers in South Africa (Code of ethics, 1988 : 8-9). The issue of divergently held values can be reinforced by the ethos of the university and the style of the department already referred to in Section 2.6.1.

3.7.4 Performance of tasks

Castelyn warns against using the student in the placement programme as an extra pair of hands (1981 : 139). A common complaint of students is that they frequently have to perform jejune tasks - a counter-productive practice often leading to disaffection. This practice of assigning menial tasks to students compromises the objectives of the programme (Conant, 1980 : 163), which he summarized as promoting the understanding of the relationship between theory and practice and the observation of principles in operation (1980 : 181). In Conant's survey of the position of education for library and information science in the United States (commissioned by the Executive Board of the American Library Association and the H W Wilson Foundation) even those educators who favoured inclusion of a fieldwork programme, complained that the educational objectives were frequently not achieved because the students ended up working on a limited basis or on narrow

unrelated aspects, and that they very often performed trivial clerical tasks (1980 : 35). Manaka suggests that part of the failure of the fieldwork experience can be traced to the arrogant attitude of students who are so firmly rooted in theory that they lack an appreciation of practice (1982 : 150).

The practical constraints affecting the programme's outcomes cannot be overlooked. As Bengé and Olden rightly point out the "length, timing, location and assessment of the period of fieldwork will depend as much on practical realities as on what is professionally most desirable" (1981 : 217).

3.8 Alternatives to fieldwork

3.8.1 Library school library

One of the most frequently proposed alternatives to the fieldwork system of practical training is the "library school library" or "teaching library" which would serve as an appropriate laboratory for students to gain practical experience (Grotzinger, 1971; Morehead, 1980; Pings & Cruzat, 1971; Prytherch, 1982(a)). Morehead is a typical proponent of the idea of a well-equipped library school library which would

afford an opportunity to discover the theoretical implications of practical tasks in librarianship and information studies ... the discovery of principles in a library-centred environment thus illuminating the relationship between theory and practice in a manner hitherto untried in traditional modes of instruction (1980 : 120).

Prytherch elaborates on the idea of the library school library, as an extension of the laboratory, and proposes it as a partial solution to the problems that he identified in his extensive survey of fieldwork practice. The laboratory-type learning experience is valuable for demonstration and experimentation but it lacks the dimension which allows for interpersonal communication and other affective objectives (Prytherch, 1982(a): 207). If, however,

the laboratory is sited within a school of librarianship, and used as a functioning library on a constant basis, with laboratory-type experiments or laboratory-type exercises run within it as and when required, without disrupting the service of the library, then the possibility is raised of a laboratory-library combination (Prytherch, 1982(a) : 207).

The advantage of such an arrangement would be that the students might interact and communicate with the public, thus overcoming one of the drawbacks of the laboratory. Prytherch identifies four theoretical possibilities of the library school library or laboratory-library :

- providing a link between theory and practice
- providing a base for the development of ideas based on real problems and possibilities in the operational context
- providing primary experience through participation in the operation
- offering a normal library and information service to its constituency of staff and students (1982(a) : 208-9).

Certainly, as envisaged by Prytherch, this method of ensuring the actualization of the link between theory and practice, sounds effective. The development of ideas and solutions in this context which is a low-risk environment, will not be as disruptive as in a conventional host library. Other advantages as outlined by Prytherch are that it can offer continuous exposure as compared to the isolated periods offered in the fieldwork programme. Because of the continuity of the experience, students can effect change and modification to the system or procedures in a real sense. The small size of the laboratory-library will permit the student to apprehend the total function of the institution, something that is difficult to achieve in a big host library. The supervision and assessment of the student is also easier in these conditions (Prytherch, 1982(a) : 213-4). Prytherch's testing of the theoretical possibilities of the laboratory-library revealed that these cognitive objectives were, in fact, realizable (1982(a) : 211). There are, however, disadvantages attached to the idea of the laboratory-library :

- the activities will inevitably be disruptive of the regular library service
- the student, through familiarity, will not have the same regard for the laboratory-library that he might have for the host library and might consequently be too ready to propose changes
- the small scale of the operation will provide limited exposure to problems

- because of the numbers of students needing to be accommodated, limited time for particular procedures or departments will be available
- the laboratory-library situation is very suitable for cognitive objectives and less apt for affective objectives (1982(a) : 215-6).

The fieldwork programme rather than the library-laboratory option, he suggested, might be used to achieve the affective objectives such as the socialization of the student (1982(a) : 216-7).

There is a close conceptual and operational relationship between Prytherch's laboratory-library and the library-school library as a training centre. Patricia Knapp described the pedagogical superiority of a library-centred education for librarianship, dependent on the library school library, in 1965 (Knapp, 1965 : 117-27). While Knapp described an actual situation based on the pedagogical principle, most other contributions to the debate have been speculative and notional, with Kaser remarking that by 1964 there was no clear conception among library educators of the role of the library school library in education for librarianship (1964 : 19).

Some years later, Morehead was to promote the idea of the library school library as an educational laboratory and expressed his surprise at finding very little in the literature on Knapp's ideas (1980 : 85). Morehead's proposal of the library school's library being the ideal locus of

experiential learning would not, in Derr's view, solve the administrative problems associated with the fieldwork programme. He suggests that Morehead's proposal is not the solution because it suffers from the same problems as the fieldwork or internship, viz. that the lecturers would have to spend a lot of unrewarding time in supervising practical skills and that major efforts would have to be made to rearrange the timetable (1983 : 194). As a result, one set of administrative problems would be replaced by another.

3.8.2 Teaching library

The idea of the teaching library is not far removed from that of the library school library or laboratory-library. It is reasonably proximate to the concept of the teaching hospital in medical education, but with some important differences. To begin with, the concept of the teaching hospital is not an experimental one : it is well established and accepted. In education for library and information science, which differs in many important respects from medical education, it is not widely used. The chief militating factor against the idea of a teaching library is probably expense and the lack of facilitating structures in the professional programme and established patterns of institutionalized co-operation between educators and practising professionals. In the medical profession the educators are very often the practitioners so that the structure of relationships is conducive to the functioning of such an arrangement. In the library and information profession, there is a much clearer demarcation between the providers of education and the practising

attitude of staff of the library and the teaching department (1981 : 13). That the idea is not yet operational (Garney, 1987) is, perhaps, an indication of the great practical difficulties in implementing such a concept.

3.8.3 Internship/Residency

The idea of an internship or residency programme, also modelled on the medical education paradigm, has a number of apologists (Dougherty, 1986; Hempstead, 1971; Holley, 1981; Schein, 1972; Trumpeter & Gherman, 1980;). Hempstead proposes an internship of at least a year's duration in a professional position with a salary and regular seminars as an aid to the integration of theory and practice (1971 : 125). According to Schein, the internship should follow the period of formal study and precede certification. The intern should be paid and the programme should be designed around instructional objectives (1972 : 122). In South Africa, the Technikons have adopted the practice of a sandwich internship as part of their course for the training of para-professionals. This arrangement has not been considered as a serious option for professional education for library and information science in South Africa.

In the United States the idea has had some currency, dating back to a suggestion made by Williamson (1923). A sub-committee of Deans of American library schools and directors of large research libraries decided that a post-master's internship lasting a year in an academic library under the supervision of a leading academic librarian would make a

useful contribution to the programme of studies. Such an internship would also be a means of identifying the most promising recruits (Trumpeter & Gherman, 1980 : 1366) :

Once the programme is underway, the interns will be in the labour market as prospective employees with more to offer libraries because of their additional year of intensive training in a mentor-type of relationship with practicing specialists (Trumpeter & Gherman, 1980 : 1369).

What should be noted about this proposed scheme is that it would be selectively applied to approved candidates and not available as a matter of course to all students. Trumpeter and Gherman report that successful internship programmes have been offered by the Library of Congress (since 1949) and by the National Library of Medicine (since 1957) (1980 : 1367-8). The University of Michigan initiated a Library Residency Program as an alternative to fieldwork in the early 1980's. The two-year residency is tenable at the University Library as a professional position with supportive instructional sessions to post-MLS librarians with full pay and benefits. Candidates are selected through a national open recruitment process (Dougherty & Longee, 1983 : 1324). While Dougherty, the Director of the University Library at the University of Michigan, is confident of the educational value of the programme, he expresses a cautionary note about the expense of the programme in competition with other very demanding organizational priorities (1986 : 120). Clough and Galvin suggest that this programme be used as a model for the creation of other "teaching libraries" (1984 : 3).

In the United Kingdom, the use of internship or post-qualification practical training is summed up in this extract from the official Library Association document relating to certification of professional librarians :

The first step towards becoming a Chartered Librarian is the successful completion of a supervised post-library school training programme of a minimum of one year's duration. This training enables the candidate to obtain practical experience of professional library and information work, and to demonstrate the potential to develop to full professional status. A Chartered Librarian must supervise the training and certify that (s)he has done so (Library Association, 1982 : 4).

3.9 Guidelines

Guidelines and criteria should be formulated, tested and adopted with the aim of reconciling the prevailing disjunction between fieldwork and the other elements in the educational programme and of reducing the gap between *in esse* and *in posse*. Recommendations regarding guidelines will be deferred to the concluding section so that their formulation might be based on evidence available from the conceptual analysis integrated with the findings of the empirical study. What follows is a summary of particular aspects to be considered in the formulation of guidelines as suggested by various writers on the topic.

3.9.1 Programming

The programming should be and remain the responsibility of the educators who should determine the objectives and nature of the exercise (Viljoen, 1973 : 224). The host libraries might

be invited to make some input into the programme and to confer with the library school about the goals, objectives and means (Van Brakel, 1982 : 144). The importance of co-operative planning at this stage is pointed out by Castelyn (1981 : 138). It is the duty of the academic department to arrange the logistics and to ensure the academic relevance of the experience. In her survey of American library schools, Witucke found that the typical administrative pattern was for one single member of the academic department to be in charge of the programme (1981 : 84). It is desirable for this training or liaison officer to make on-site visits where this is feasible (Van Brakel, 1982 : 144) although the factor of geographical remoteness of some universities from the host libraries is problematic in this regard.

The *Guidelines* drawn up by SAILIS (SAILIS. CER, 1984) can certainly be productively used by the different library schools as a framework of reference, but individual drafts specifying particular conditions and requirements and incorporating the national guidelines are desirable. The value of the document is that by standardizing the approach, the problems of randomness associated with lack of clarity as to aims will be minimized. The *Guidelines* recommend consultation between the parties and full information regarding the working programme and the teaching objectives (1987 : 28).

3.9.2 Briefing

The importance of structuring the practical component by means of briefing of the students, discussions of principles and concepts to be illustrated and encountered, is highlighted by Ross, Hughes and Hill (1981). These researchers, working in the area of clinical practice in teaching, briefed the students in the experimental group about the specific concepts and applications related to the field experience. These students performed better in tests designed to test their knowledge and their ability to apply the knowledge than the control group exposed to the same concepts and applications, but without the orientation to use their subsequent field experience as a context (1981 : 106). The significance of their observations is that the structuring and ordering of different learning experiences and their relationships, and orientation of the students by means of discussions and briefing are important determinants of successful learning.

3.9.3 Structure and sequence

The structuring and sequencing of the fieldwork programme is very important from the educational perspective. Learning theorists have shown that in order for certain concepts to be learned, the learner will need recourse to previously acquired information and skills - that some learning is contingent upon prior learning. If the student is unable to recall the required information or skill, he will be unable to learn the new (Gagné & Briggs, 1979 : 14). One of the requirements of a successful fieldwork programme is that it should be integrated with the whole programme so that the practical experience

might relate in a meaningful and reinforcing way with the other learning experiences. The programme should be structured and sequenced in such a way as to facilitate this cognitive process, i.e. the construction and integration of experience with existing cognitive maps or structures (Cf Gagné & Briggs, 1979).

3.9.4 Supervision

Part of the success of the fieldwork programme will depend on the ability and good will of the supervising librarian. For this reason, it is important that the libraries that participate in the scheme should be "training minded" (Edwards, 1977 : 75). The whole area of co-operation between the training institution and the host libraries is of immense importance. Warner, Houston and Cooper have pointed out the importance of the mentor role undertaken by professionals in supervisory roles in teaching practice programmes (1977 : 16). Notwithstanding the significance of this role, they found that these supervisors are seldom trained for the responsibility or that the value of their contribution recognized. They recommend that there should be preparation and recognition. A more recent contribution to the discussion of the role of supervising teachers has been made by the eminent educationalist, Edgar Stones, who argues that this important subject has been neglected and that the methods of supervision have been described as "atheoretical, idiosyncratic, poorly conceptualised, of doubtful efficacy and in some cases probably harmful" (1984 : 1). While his treatise is concerned with teacher education, it is possible to find points of

comparison between the two professions and their approach to professional preparation and to identify common problematic areas.

Research on occupational socialization, in the context of teaching practice, has isolated the relationship between the student and the supervisor as a significant factor in socialization (Corbett, 1980; Warner, Houston & Cooper, 1977). Becher and Ade, in their study of the characteristic of good field placements found that the following factors were characteristic of a positive relationship between student and supervisor :

- provision of good modelling
- feedback to the student
- opportunity for innovation (1982 : 25).

This observation might be extended to other clinical settings, such as fieldwork in education for library and information science.

3.9.5 Feedback

Evaluation of the learning experience and assessment are two very important steps that should be part of the fieldwork programme. The importance of feedback in educational practice is emphasized by Wiener :

I repeat, feedback is a method of controlling a system by reinserting into it the results of its past performance. If these results are merely used as numerical data for the criticism of the system and its regulation, we have the simple feedback of the control engineers. If, however, the information which proceeds backwards from the performance is able to change the general method and pattern of performance, we have a process which we may call "learning". (1954 : 61).

In order to maximize the educational benefit of the experience it is necessary that the student receive good feedback on the consequences of his decisions and actions (Schein, 1972 : 118). If the students receive no feedback, the impression that the fieldwork programme and their performance are of marginal significance can be understood. At present, feedback mechanisms are less than satisfactory and "the necessary link between the library school and host library is broken" (Manaka, 1982 : 150).

Feedback, in this context, would have three aspects :

- informal monitoring of student's performance to provide feedback, as described in the preceding paragraph
- an evaluation of the fieldwork programme and the feedback of this information back to the host institution
- an assessment of the student's performance to determine a grade or pass/fail to constitute an element in the student's academic record

3.9.5.1 Assessment of students

A discussion of the assessment of students could well be a sub-category of the rubric of "problems" since it is a

problematic issue (Cf Section 3.7). There are difficulties associated with the wish to rate the performance and assign a quantifiable grade to the student. As early as 1923 the practice of using the fieldwork period as a means of determining the student's suitability for the profession was dismissed (Williamson, 1923 : 59). "A prolonged period of field practice should not be necessary as a test of the student's general capacity" (Williamson, 1923 : 59). Theoretically it should be possible for the student to fail the fieldwork assignment and therefore be refused admission to the profession. This is an unlikely occurrence as discussed in an earlier section referring to Stones's findings in teaching practice (Cf Section 3.3 and 3.5).

Reference has been made to the danger, observed in teaching practice, of rewarding students according to their conformity, impersonality, subordination and bureaucratic loyalty (Cf Section 3.5).

Stones (1984), Becker et al (1968) and Miller & Parlett (1974) all examine the problem of the conflict between the demands of getting a good grade (formal assessment procedures) and effective learning. Their studies all point to the tendency of students' adopting strategies such as "impression management" (i.e. projecting an agreeable attitudes without regard for their pedagogical worth) (Stones, 1984 : 8). Prytherch concludes that because of the many educational and administrative problems, it is very difficult, indeed

undesirable, to attempt an assessment (for grading purposes) of the student's performance (1986 : 148).

On the other hand, many writers urge that the student's performance be assessed on lines similar to other tests in the course in order to yield a grade of comparable weight (Association of British Library Schools : Edwards, 1977; Coburn, 1980; Van Brakel, 1982). The *SAILIS Guidelines* enjoin the teaching institution to employ reliable methods to assess the student's performance. This evaluation should "culminate in the assignment of a performance mark [which] should form part of the student's year or semester mark" (1987 : 27).

3.9.5.2 Self-assessment

The other form of assessment that is less problematic is the self-assessment carried out by the student. This report is carried out in addition to the assessment by the supervisor/training officer. It can take the form of a diary or log-book, a study paper or project. The College of Librarianship, Wales, for example, requires the students to keep a log-book during the field placement. The log-book, which is graded by the supervisor, has three purposes

- to indicate the scope of programme and the range of activities undertaken by the student
- to collect data, both as statistics and as regards the policy and functions of the library
- to demonstrate the student's ability to observe and criticise (Edwards, 1977 : 217-8).

Coburn (1980 : 43) and Monroe (1981 : 81) are among the proponents of the "field seminar" which is a discussion of the student's experience with other members of the class - the written report providing a case study used as a basis for discussion. Such a seminar can provide a useful vehicle for discussion, reflection and guidance in pinpointing patterns and theories or even challenging principles (Monroe, 1981 : 63).

It is interesting to compare the foregoing criteria and guidelines derived for current conditions with suggestions made by Williamson in 1923 :

- the period of fieldwork should be shortened
- supervising librarians should be paid for their services
- care should be exercised in choosing a supervisor
- the supervisor should have the necessary skills to instruct the student
- that the report-back system should be adopted
- fieldwork and classroom instruction should be carefully articulated (1923 : 62-6).

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY OF EMPIRICAL SURVEY

4.1 Purpose of the investigation

The intention of this investigation is to establish the purpose and value of fieldwork in the educational programme of library and information science. This can, of course, be done exclusively by means of a philosophical investigation into the educational concept and rationale of fieldwork as it relates to other components in the educational programme. On the other hand, however, such a conceptual study could be enhanced by an empirical investigation into one or more fieldwork programmes as a means of testing the rationale and educational philosophy against what actually happens in a fieldwork placement and of determining the effectiveness of the programme.

It was decided to adopt the latter strategy, as a preliminary study of the literature revealed that many of the assumptions regarding fieldwork were untested and that there was a dearth of empirical evidence regarding the functioning of fieldwork programmes and their outcomes.

An important dimension in this investigation constitutes the students' experience of fieldwork, since a mere conceptual analysis of fieldwork based on stated objectives by educators, observers and professional associations would not provide sufficient evidence to evaluate the programme. It is necessary to consult the participants because by their

participation, perception and involvement in the programme they give meaning to the experience. Moreover, an examination of the literature reveals a striking lacuna : the lack of a student perspective on the problem. In their survey of education for library and information science in the United States, Belzer and Brown (1973 : 11) found a notable lack of reference in the literature to students' perceptions and experiences of fieldwork. In the United Kingdom, the Students' Committee of the Association of Assistant Librarians referred to the dearth of information regarding student attitudes to and experience of fieldwork (Association of Assistant Librarians Students' Committee, 1969). Richardson and Hernon's survey of the literature revealed, too, that students' perceptions had never been reported at the time of their survey (1981 : 287). The SAILIS investigation into fieldwork acknowledged that the lack of student response in their survey was a serious lacuna. Goodlad, the eminent curriculum theorist, comments on the neglect by curriculum designers and evaluators of students as potentially valuable data sources (1979). He finds it ironical that the perspective and experience of students are the most neglected sources in view of the fact that they are at "the viewing and receiving end of all these complex processes" (1979 : 37). Their perceptions and experiences are, therefore, a valuable complementary source of information and insight into the fieldwork programme.

4.2 Disciplinary context of the research problem

A consideration of the research design introduced challenging philosophical, epistemological and methodological problems. There is general consensus that library and information science is closer to the applied social sciences than to any other grouping of academic disciplines. This is apparent from the many monographs and papers outlining research methods in library and information science. This research orientation obliged the researcher to consider carefully those research methodologies in the social sciences that have been employed by researchers in library and information science. However, the problem is very clearly located also in the educational domain, rather than one with exclusive connections to library and information science. Consequently, the researcher had to be always mindful of the disciplinary ramifications and to give careful attention to methodological approaches in the educational research paradigm as well as those suggested by research traditions in library and information science.

4.3 Theoretical framework

The theoretical model or conceptual framework of fieldwork underpinning the empirical evaluation was derived from Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. The conceptual investigation was an important analytical method of defining and determining the parameters to be studied in the empirical evaluation and also provided relevant theoretical insights of value in the interpretation of the data. Holsti, who is the acknowledged expert on content analysis, recommends the use of a framework, as a guide both in formulating specific issues to be addressed

and also in the analysis and interpretation of data thus collected. The use of a framework "can minimize ... the possibility that the findings reflect the analyst's subjective predispositions ..." (1969 : 3-4).

The conceptual study identified key concepts related to the topic of investigation and analysed relationships and distinctions between them. It revealed significant features of the programme, uncovered issues and problems, indicated relationships and suggested what questions needed to be explored. This laid the foundation of the empirical investigation, indicated the methodology most appropriate and informed the philosophy underpinning that methodological approach, and was of use in the constructing and refining of a theoretical model of fieldwork.

Because very little systematic research on the subject of fieldwork has been undertaken in the field of education for library and information science, the researcher has been obliged to extend the boundaries of the study by seeking guidance in research studies in comparable fields in professional education. Research on teaching and learning in fieldwork in professional education is very sparse except in medical education, which leads the field, (Dinham & Stritter, 1986 : 963) and teacher education. In the absence of an accumulated archive of empirical research into the field experience in library and information science education, the researcher has turned to clinical experience in teacher education as a useful analogy (Cf Section 2.5).

The conceptual relationships between various professional education programmes have already been established (Section 2.3) and it has been argued that the commonality of philosophy, problems, procedures and theoretical constructs in education for different professions allows for common aspects to be identified and analogies to be drawn with due regard for the unique and distinctive features of each professional discipline. Moreover, the influence of the educational model of a discipline such as medicine, has been pervasive and has informed the conceptualization of professional education in general (Shulman, 1984 : 192).

In particular, the work of Zeichner who has extensively studied clinical experience in teacher education, has been found to be useful in providing a clarifying focus (Zeichner, 1980(a); 1986). Zeichner's point of departure is that in order to assess the impact of clinical experience, it is not sufficient only to study public statements of intention. One should also examine the experience itself (1980). He argues for the adoption of the "constructivist" approach (e.g. participant observation or case study) in the study of field-based experiences :

... because they enable the pursuit of unanticipated phenomena as they emerge and offer a means for understanding the existential reality of becoming a teacher (e.g. covert processes of student teacher resistance to institutional norms) (Zeichner, 1980(b) : 53).

The "constructivist perspective" has been defined by Magoon as being based on the premise that the "subjects" being studied "must at a minimum be considered knowing beings, and that this knowledge they possess has important consequences for how behavior or action are interpreted" (Magoon, 1977 : 652). (As this research orientation is pivotal to this study the rationale for its adoption is discussed at greater length in Section 4.8.2.)

Two published studies (incorporating an empirical component) which deal specifically with fieldwork in education for library and information science have been useful for the identification of specific types of information to be gathered and as a guide in the design of the questionnaires forming the basis of the students' evaluation of the experience (Coburn, 1980; Prytherch, 1979). In addition to suggesting areas that ought to be examined, the studies are useful in that they provide a basis for comparison.

4.4 Educational evaluation

Because the focus of the empirical study is the evaluation of a particular type of learning process, it was clear that education is the chief disciplinary context and the field of evaluation the specific focus of this part of the study. The investigation of the purpose and value of fieldwork includes an evaluation of the programmes at two selected universities as a means of generating empirical data to complement, correlate or substantiate theoretical concepts that have been drawn from the literature on the subject in the field of

library and information science and related professional disciplines, and to produce grounded theory. (The basis on which the two programmes were selected is a methodological issue and is discussed in Section 4.15; the generation and correlation of theoretical concepts is dealt with fully in Section 4.21 which is concerned with analysis of data.)

Evaluation has been^{described} by Dressel in the following way :

The purpose of systematic evaluation is simply that of bringing to a conscious level and in a form to expedite decision making, the assumptions and values inherent in educational programs, to relate these to anticipated procedures and expected accomplishments, and to compare these plans with actual functioning and results (1976 : 12).

Scriven distinguishes between formative and summative evaluation, a distinction that is frequently referred to and discussed in the literature (1967 : 40-43). Formative evaluation serves the function of improvement or development of a programme whereas summative evaluation is used for accreditation, certification or accountability. While the distinction is useful in certain circumstances (in that it determines the audience and the political context of the evaluation), the difference is sometimes blurred and many evaluators fail to locate explicitly their research in either of the two categories. The current study tends towards the formative rather than the summative although judgments about effectiveness will also be made, as the term evaluation implies an assessment of value or worth. Lincoln and Guba identify two aspects of value (1985). One aspect is merit

which denotes intrinsic value. For example, a programme has merit if it is up-to-date and well articulated. The other aspect is worth, which is a quality that is determined by the context of the programme (1985 : 227). For example, the participants may make judgments about its quality and attribute worth to it. (Cf Sections 4.6.1 and 4.17.1 for an elaborated discussion of criteria used to assess outcomes and quality.)

Stufflebeam, Isaac and Michael enunciate succinctly the purpose of evaluation : "The purpose of evaluation is to improve; not to prove" (1981 : 1). In this definition it is possible to discern a research orientation that gives a hint of the intense debate that is being conducted about the epistemological positions of researchers espousing quantitative approaches and others who are proponents of the qualitative approach. This debate in the field of evaluation research has decided relevance for the current research project and will be discussed soon at some length in order to shed light on the philosophy that underpins the research design of this study.

Evaluation research as a sub-discipline of educational research has grown in the last two decades, particularly in the U K and the U S A because of developments in the policy research areas and the drive towards greater accountability. As Wolcott so aptly remarks :

Evaluation provides the focus and arena for action in the constant call for educational improvement and reform (1984 : 179).

The definition of Stake and Denny is a serviceable one as it refers to concepts and issues involved and the connections between them :

Considered broadly, evaluation is the discovery of the nature and worth of something. In relation to education, we may evaluate students, teachers, curriculums, administrators, systems, programmes and nations. The purposes for which evaluation is done may be many, but always evaluation attempts to describe something and to indicate its perceived merits and shortcomings ... Evaluation is not a search for cause and effect, an inventory of present status, or a prediction of future success. It is something of all of these but only as they contribute to understanding substance, function and worth (1969 : 370).

4.5 Development of approaches to evaluation

Space does not permit a detailed exposition of the development of all the recorded evaluation approaches and models. A consideration of a number of typologies of evaluation approaches will reveal that there have been two dominant approaches till the mid-60's when an alternative approach began to emerge. (Cf, for example, the account of this development in Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1984.) The traditional approach is derived from the widely used and accepted model of educational research that has been labelled the "descriptive-correlational-experimental loop". It consists of :

- development of procedures for describing teaching in a quantitative way
- correlational studies in which descriptive variables are related to measures of student learning
- experimental studies in which significant variables obtained in the correlational studies are tested in a controlled situation (Rosenshine & Furst, 1973 : 122).

Tyler has been called the father of educational evaluation and his model of measuring student performance against objectives (1942) has been very influential in this field and has been widely adopted. The other dominant tradition in evaluation has been the experimental approach which attempts to determine causal relationship between specified dependent and independent variables. This method has been pioneered by Cook and Campbell (1976). These two entrenched approaches have been challenged and broadened by proposed alternative approaches which, collectively, could be characterized as qualitative in contrast to the quantitative nature of the dominant models.

Qualitative research is a generic label that embraces a number of different methods which all share a general orientation to a more naturalistic or interpretive inquiry method. This approach is usually seen in opposition to the quantitative approach which is generally characterized by an experimental orientation and psychometric principles. Louis's simple definition clarifies the relationship between the two

approaches which is sometimes confusing because of the diversity of definitions employed :

... in general each author has attempted to confine the use of the term "qualitative" to data collection methods that involve non-numeric data and to analysis that does not use statistical methods (1982 : 6).

The position tends to be a dichotomous one with an ongoing debate between proponents of the two approaches. Pelto and Pelto refer to the disagreement of the relative superiority of one approach over the other as "the central methodological debate of the 1970's" (1978 : ix). Renzulli summarizes the dichotomy somewhat forcefully :

Two irresistible forces in education seem hell-bent on a collision course, and I am afraid that our friend the evaluator is going to be caught squarely at the point of impact. The first irresistible force is the behavioral objectives movement ... one cannot deny the value that it has had in helping to build evaluation and accountability models and to advance the science of education beyond the vagueness and lack of specificity (of the past) ... There is still another irresistible force growing in education today - a renewed concern for the total development of the individual as a human being, dealing with such difficult-to-measure concepts as self-actualisation, Consciousness III, and sociability (1972 : 301).

While his comments accurately portray something of the flavour of the intense debate of the 60's and 70's, it will be seen from the later discussion that his position is somewhat overstated with respect to the position today in view of the degree of accommodation that has taken place. Nonetheless, a discussion of some of the critical philosophical and

methodological differences between the quantitative and qualitative approaches remains relevant because of the need for an understanding of the development of differing epistemological positions.

Stake broadened the base of Tyler's model in the 1960's by calling for an examination of background, process, standards and judgments as well as outcomes and he criticized the classical view as being too narrow and mechanistic (1967). He called his approach countenance evaluation which subsequently became known as responsive evaluation (1976)(a). His contributions have been very influential in the development of more holistic approaches to evaluation, particularly because, as a trained mathematician with a background in psychometrics, his challenge to the conventional behaviour-oriented evaluation model was viewed as authoritative and convincing. His model of responsive evaluation was advocated by McDonald (1971; 1976) and Parlett and Hamilton (1972) (whose relevance to this investigation is discussed later in this chapter). The merits of the traditional approaches and the emergent approach (which can be said to have originated in the late 60's with new conceptualizations of evaluation by researchers such as Stake (1967), Scriven (1967) and Stufflebeam (1967)) will be considered in an attempt to explain the selection of the approach and methodology considered most appropriate for the current investigation.

4.6 Methods of inquiry

The methodologies available in evaluation research range from the traditional experimental and quasi-experimental types, closely following the Tylerian model - advocated, for example by Cook and Campbell (1979) - to naturalistic methods advocated by Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Patton (1980).

The methodological principles governing measurement and design in the social sciences are also applicable to evaluation research (Caro, 1977). Many of these approaches (particularly those that tend towards the qualitative end of the spectrum) overlap and are consistent with each other and differ only with respect to emphasis or degree of detail.

The discussion that follows is not a comprehensive and detailed critique of all aspects of the longer established tradition in research evaluation, but concentrates on those methodologies that were possible candidates for this investigation, and analyses the factors that were influential in the selection of the most appropriate methodological approach in the research design.

4.6.1 Measurement of outcomes

Traditional evaluation based on the product model would extract the aims and objectives of the fieldwork programme, as set out in course descriptions, handbook entries and the like. Performance criteria would be derived from these instructional objectives and used to test specific learning outcomes. Such an investigation, in the positivist and experimental tradition

of emphasizing input and output variables to establish cause and effect, would only be able to measure these limited outcomes in terms of so-called "learning behaviours". It can be argued that this method is too restricting as it narrows the range and nature of the questions that can be asked and because it lacks explanatory power. It cannot provide evidence as to why a programme succeeded or failed (because it does not consider process variables) and has little value, therefore, in programme revision or development. (Process variables are the unique internal dynamics of a programme and those factors that are instrumental in producing the results of the programme (Patton, 1980 : 60-62)). As Stenhouse says, "The crucial criticism of the objectives model is that it assesses without explaining." Hence the developer of the curriculum cannot learn from it (1975 : 120).

With respect to measurement of outcomes, it is legitimate to evaluate the objectives and goals of the programme and not merely to accept them as given or as criteria against which to measure the programme, as would be the case in an objectives-oriented approach. An objectives-based approach rules out the possibility of discovering unintended or unanticipated effects and runs counter to Popper's recommendation that "the main task of social science ... is to trace the unintended repercussions of intentional human activity" (1959 : 281).

Blalock and Blalock warn against the attempt to evaluate programme impact in terms of cause and effect relationships. They argue that this is not possible and suggest that the

evaluation attempt, rather, to identify strengths and weaknesses in the programme (1982 : 122). The objectives-oriented approach to evaluation reflects a theory of curriculum that is rooted in the means-end rationality model which has been criticized by Huebner, among others, as an ideology that embraces a technical value system (1975 : 223).

The most common mode of assessment of student learning outcomes has been by means of achievement tests relating to mastery of the subject domain. However, most educators agree that cognitive gains are not the only outcomes of a learning experience and that there are broad aims such as affective outcomes that might be equally as important but less easy to test (Cf Beard et al, 1975 ; McKeachie, 1987; Marsh & Overall, 1980 and the discussion in Section 2.4.1).

An emphasis on measuring outcomes in terms of the achievement of stated objectives and goals would be at the expense of context and process variables, important dimensions in fieldwork, as in any learning situation, and would provide only a very simplified or superficial measure of the success or value of the programme, or might even be misleading. The programme is likely to have unintended or unpredictable consequences (beneficial or otherwise) which will be important to identify in the evaluation. Important objectives of a programme - those difficult to define operationally and to quantify - would seldom be included in such an objectives-oriented evaluation because of the difficulty of measuring such activities as critical thought, use of judgment, and

interpersonal interaction and communication (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1985 : 76).

The problem of measuring outcomes is particularly difficult in complex programmes. As Zimiles points out, the usual response to the dilemma of measuring an effect in an evaluation is to

sift through the roster of multiple outcomes and single out for assessment, not the most important ones, but those that are capable of being measured (1980 : 7).

This is clearly an inadequate procedure, but perhaps accounts for the many studies that report, with a high degree of methodological confidence, trivial findings and seem to ignore more substantive (but complex) gains.

The fieldwork programme, as conceptualized in library and information science education, has broader and more diffuse goals than mere improvement in test grades. Therefore an achievement test must be ruled out as a measure of the global impact of the programme. Distal goals also elude measurement (e.g. the presumed effect that fieldwork might have in the subsequent career development of a student) and it is problematical to find adequate proximate measures for the long-term gains envisaged by the planners of the programme. There is the difficulty of defining for all fieldwork placements an operational indicator that would allow the evaluator to assert, on the basis of an achievement test, that a particular objective has been met. For these reasons an

objectives-oriented design has been ruled out for the current investigation.

4.6.2 Experimental measures

Experimental methods attempt to isolate effects through tightly controlled experimental procedures. The experimental method concentrates on what is observable, measurable and objective in a tightly controlled, and therefore of necessity, artificial environment.

It is virtually impossible to ascertain in strictly quantifiable terms the direct impact on a student that exposure to a fieldwork programme, for example, has had because of the many confounding contextual variables and the difficulty of disaggregating the effect of each of these factors. In student learning, there are many factors in the learning environment that will influence learning : the broad university context, the classroom environment, relations with the teaching staff, relations with peer group, informal learning, learning during the fieldwork programme, motivation and expectations of the student, the influence of the supervisor and the dynamics of the organizational setting of the fieldwork placement. It is very difficult to discern in quantifiable terms the outcomes of field-based experience as a learning experience over the specific nature of its influence because of the dynamics of the experience.

Moreover, it is clear from the conceptual analysis that more than one outcome is expected, e.g. the acquisition of skills

and knowledge and changes in attitude (Cf Section 3.3). Where there is only one outcome to measure, such as increased reading scores, an experimental method is suitable whereby one single index could be sought. A wider investigation into the process entails a more detailed and extensive examination of the entire network rather than the circumscribed features that could be elicited in the experimental mode using the following methods :

- identifying and quantifying important inputs
- testing and measuring specific learning outcomes
- manipulating, controlling or eliminating variables
- correlating individual variables
- statistical analysis of cause and effect relationship and input and output variables
- statistical inference and tests of statistical significance

This approach has been deemed unsuitable for application in this study for a number of reasons. Correlated variables reflect the end product rather than the process, and the associations between variables do not accommodate inferences as to the direction of effects or cause (Malipant, 1986 : 80). The researcher is unable to control the situational variables in the contextual setting which is not clinically controlled as one might, for the purposes of an experiment, control the conditions of a classroom, for example. The fieldwork programme takes place in a variety of sites, with a variety of supervisors and supporting personnel, and with a variety of scheduled activities. Its naturalistic setting is

what distinguishes the fieldwork programme from, for example, learning in a classroom or a laboratory where all students are exposed to the same programme (or "treatment") and where, therefore, variables can be controlled.

Replicability, as it is understood in terms of experimental design is also ruled out here : the programme being investigated cannot be replicated because it is dynamic and takes place in a variety of naturalistic settings. The learning milieu displays more complex characteristics and relations than can be uncovered in a pre-test and post-test experimental design. (A method of "replication" used in qualitative research is discussed in Section 4.13.)

An additional reason for rejecting an experimental design is the impossibility of using a test group of people exposed to the programme and comparing their performance (in a test, for example) with those from a control group similar to the test group but who have not participated in the programme. Were it possible to randomize participants into an experimental group exposed to the programme and a control group not exposed to the programme, this would raise ethical problems about equity and the propriety of excluding students from a programme designed and presumed to have beneficial and lasting effects.

4.7 Critique of the traditional research paradigm

A major development in evaluation research has been the challenge to the traditional paradigm that has its roots in the hypothetico-deductive approach derived from the natural sciences (Maling & Keepes, 1985 : 266). The hypothetico-deductive method is widely accepted as describing the scientific method (Holmes, 1972 : 196) and it is closely associated with positivism. The method entails the formulation of one or more hypotheses which are then tested empirically, the results of the empirical observations being compared with the logical (or deductive) consequences of the beliefs embodied in the hypothesis/es (Holmes, 1972 : 196). When positivism is applied to the social sciences it refers to the belief that the aims, concepts and methods of the natural sciences can be applied to social science inquiry and that the model of explanation employed in the natural sciences is the logical standard by which explanations in the social sciences can be assessed (Carr & Kemmis, 1986 : 62). This view of educational research is typified by the following extract from a monograph on educational research :

[educational research] is an activity directed towards the development of an organized body of scientific knowledge ... which reveals laws of behaviour that can be used to make predictions and control events within educational situations (Travers, 1969 : 16).

Gage refers to the use of the paradigms in the educational context as

models, patterns, or schemata. Paradigms are not theories; they are rather ways of thinking or patterns for research that, when carried out, can lead to the development of theory (1963 : 95).

The traditional paradigm, closely associated with quantitative, causal analysis and an adherence to the testing of objectives is usually classified as positivist with its emphasis on quantitative approaches, whereas the emergent paradigm has been labelled qualitative, although it does not reflect a unified methodological approach so much as a variety of methodologies based on related epistemeological positions. This development in educational research owes much to the current debate in sociology where positivism is under very critical scrutiny and where qualitative approaches are being developed (Filstead, 1970).

It has been argued that the nature of education and the particular demands it makes on research indicates the social anthropological paradigm rather than the "the agricultural botany paradigm" which follows the Tylerian (objectives) approach (Parlett, 1975). The descriptors "agricultural-botany" refer to R A Fisher's influential experimental designs which had a powerful influence on subsequent methodological development in the social sciences. His model of experimentation was based on agricultural investigations carried out in the 1920s (Fisher, 1966). Parlett argues powerfully that the latter paradigm is inappropriate in education because it is designed for and used successfully in the natural sciences to produce quantitative data to support

statistical inferences rather than for normative human behaviour (1975 : 415). Its strength lies in the validity and reliability of the results thus produced. However, even in the natural sciences it has become to be realized that the observer and the act of observation might have an influence on the outcome. The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle in physics, for example, refers to the alteration of the accuracy of measurement by the employment of instruments to measure velocity and the electron's position simultaneously (Patton, 1980 : 189).

The development in the 1960's of qualitative methodology was an attempt to move beyond the experimental and psychometric traditions dominant then in educational research. The emergent qualitative approach developed in partial response to the realization that the positivistic quantitative investigations had failed to produce unambiguous causal connections because social reality cannot be measured using these techniques, i.e., by breaking up complex situations into component parts, controlling the variation of isolated variables and then reassembling them (Elton & Laurillard, 1979 : 87). The wide use of quantitative methods in evaluation research was predicated on the assumption that educational programmes would produce the programmed results and that the purpose of the evaluation was to verify the planned outcomes (Cook & Reichardt, 1979 : 17). The quantitative research designs were unable to reveal why apparently massive experimental treatments in education were producing no measurable effects (Abt & Magidson, 1980). In

the early 1960's it came to be realized that the results of evaluations based on quantitative methodologies were not very useful to curriculum developers because of the limited application of their findings and because the design was not responsive to questions about the real effectiveness of the programmes. These conclusions were contained in an important paper by Cronbach published in 1963.

4.8 Qualitative approaches

In a complex learning environment such as a fieldwork programme, it is simplistic to such paradigms as the agricultural exemplar in terms of input, treatment and output (Cf Sections 4.6.1 and 4.6.2.). In contrast, the social anthropological paradigm permits the researcher to work with a smaller-scale study (i.e. not dependent on huge samples) and to collect as much data as necessary and consider a wider range of variables by using a variety of techniques. Parlett offers an exposition of the use and value of this paradigm :

[The researcher] seeks to comprehend relationships e.g. between beliefs and practices, and between organizational patterns and customary responses of individuals. The end product of his research is not a set of "findings" as such, nor an undigested assembly of facts and figures, but an interpretation of a highly complex system. It is based on a mass of data which he has distilled, and from which he has drawn his extensive citations of evidence (1975 : 421).

The work by Parlett and Hamilton is a landmark in the development of qualitative research approaches as an alternative to the traditional evaluation which is so

dependent on measurement. Their approach is called "illuminative evaluation" (1972) and is characteristic of the work of "the new wave evaluators" - Stenhouse's appellation (1975 : 116) - who are concerned to ask not merely "How good is it?" but, "What is happening?" Illuminative evaluation was developed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in the late 1960's (Parlett & Hamilton, 1977 : 10). As an approach it has been successfully used in numerous investigations in higher education settings (Parlett, 1985 : 2397). (Cf also work of McDonald (1971; 1976), Parlett and Dearden (1977), and Stake (1967; 1976(a); 1976(b) - all leading exponents of the new mode of evaluation.)

Rist comments on the "two remarkable and inter-related developments" that have occurred in educational policy research in the last decade in the U.S. The one is the decline of the natural science model as the pre-eminent model in policy studies and the second is the retreat of quantitative methods, leaving a vacuum which has been filled by a growing and vigorous interest in qualitative methods (1984 : 159). He ascribes this interest to a reaction against sterile empiricism which led to a recognition that a focus on outcomes was meaningless without an understanding of the processes entailed in implementation (1984 : 161).

4.8.1 Learning milieu

The logic of the alternative research paradigm does not demand huge samples, and because of the importance of context, does not attempt to detach the phenomenon from its setting.

Instead of isolating the programme from the whole of the learning milieu, the holistic view is adopted in order to arrive at a systematic description and interpretation. One of the underlying assumptions of illuminative evaluation is that a system cannot be understood and viewed in isolation from its wider contexts (Parlett, 1981 : 223). This approach is part of the holistic tradition which appreciates that the characteristics of a part are influenced by the whole to which it belongs and by its location in a particular system (Reason, 1981 : 185). The naturalistic setting is emphasized (Parlett, 1981 : 226) and the evaluator does not try to construct an artificially controlled environment. This concern for the setting is in keeping with the current recognition of the importance of "ecological validity", a term explained by Entwistle as denoting the setting in which an activity takes place (1984 : 10). Ecological psychologists argue that for research findings to be generalizable to other instances, the research should be conducted in settings similar to those the researchers wish to generalize about and not in experimental environments (Center for New Schools : ethnographic techniques in educational research, 1977 : 193).

The significance of context in educational research is a principle that is being increasingly recognized, even by researchers in the experimental tradition. In his celebrated paper of 1975, in which he reviews the primacy of the experimental design in education research, Cronbach points to the importance of context in the following extract :

An observer collecting data in one particular situation is in a position to appraise a practice or proposition in that setting, observing effects in context. In trying to describe and account for what happened, he will give equal attention to whatever variables were controlled but he will give equally careful attention to uncontrolled variables (1975(a) : 125).

Churchman warns that failure to consider context in educational research leads to what he terms the "environmental fallacy" (1979).

4.8.2 Interpretive Paradigm

This shift in focus has occasioned an important shift in the research paradigm (Entwistle, 1984 : 10) which is represented by the shift from the positivist, experimental mode to the interpretive mode which is marked by the influential publication of Parlett and Hamilton (1972). The roots of the interpretive paradigm in educational research are to be found in sociology. One of the most famous expressions of interpretive social science is Weber's well known definition of sociology :

Sociology is a science which aims at interpretive understanding of social action ... In action is included all human behaviour when and in so far as the acting individual attaches a subjective to it. Action in this sense may be either overt or purely inward or subjective; it may consist of positive intervention in a situation, or of deliberately refraining from such intervention, or passively acquiescing in the situation. Action is social in so far as, by virtue of the subjective meaning attached to it by the acting individual (or individuals), it takes account of the behaviour of others and is thereby oriented to its course (1964 : 88).

The new perspective reflected in this shift in educational research - that of the student as opposed to that of the teacher - offers important and valuable insights that are rooted in real-life situations (Entwistle, 1984 : 13). Qualitative educational research is concerned, *inter alia*, with participant perspective (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982 : 29). The theoretical orientation or underpinning of qualitative educational research is interpretive (Carr & Kemmis, 1983). The interpretive paradigm, as distinguished from the positivistic paradigm, is associated with attempts "to understand the meaning of events and interactions of people in a particular situation" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982 : 31) and to understand their experiences from their point of view and the meaning that they attach to their experience (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982 : 33).

This paradigm is associated with ethnography, a naturalistic methodology developed by anthropologists and sociologists to study the culture of a group. Ethnographic techniques include participant observation and the recording of data and interpretation of meaning (Taft, 1985 : 1729). The aim of ethnography, according to anthropologist Geertz, is "thick description" : finding and interpreting meaning in a multiplicity of complex conceptual structures (1973 : 3-32), an approach that has become influential in sociological and educational research.

Ethnography, the method of inquiry into phenomena in naturally occurring situations, has been adapted and developed by educational researchers because it is versatile and hospitable to a variety of theoretical frameworks. That this is the case is demonstrated by Smith who provides a representative list of exemplars of educational ethnography which he commends for their successful adaptation of ethnographic techniques and for their virtuosity in finding solutions to problem framing, theoretical perspective and research purpose (1982 : 590). His list, by no means comprehensive or exhaustive, offers a view of the diversity of purpose, process and context that were successfully and creatively accommodated in the ethnographic tradition, e.g. :

- professional education programmes (Becker et al, 1961)
- student perspective (Mehan, 1980)
- programme evaluation (Hamilton, 1976)
- socialization (Smith & Geoffrey, 1968)

Jennings points out that the terms associated with qualitative research are used loosely and particular methodologies are not necessarily tied to any one paradigm (1986 : 14). This lack of precision and overlap in the typology of methodologies can be viewed both as a disadvantage stemming from excessive relativism and as a characteristic of the flexibility of the qualitative approach which is not yet a unitary system. In recent years, however, there has been growing evidence of attempts to establish and systematize the alternative paradigm to the extent that its canons of inquiry are being formalized

and an extensive literature devoted to methodological issues such as research design and analysis is being developed (cf Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Firestone & Herriott, 1983; Goetz & Le Compte, 1984; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Patton, 1980; Reason & Rowan, 1981; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984; Yin, 1982(a)). The literature on the philosophical and epistemological bases has a longer history and is more voluminous since criticism of the traditional quantitative paradigm goes back to the 1960's.

4.9 Applications to current study

Reasons for rejecting the objectives-oriented and the experimental approaches have been advanced (cf Sections 4.6.1 and 4.6.2). Illuminative evaluation is a suitable approach to the study of a subject which is informed and defined by a variety of relations, e.g. the concept and practice of professional education, and the relationship between theory and practice and between educator and practitioner. Moreover, the holistic approach of illuminative evaluation is relevant to the investigation of attitudinal, situational and environmental influences as fieldwork is functionally located in a comprehensive framework of learning and teaching which has to be examined for its interaction with the programme (Cf Chapters 2 and 3). This approach was deemed as appropriate to the present study because of its successful application in higher educational settings (e.g. at the University of Edinburgh and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Parlett & Hamilton, 1977 : 10)); because it can accommodate the complexity of the situation by assessing multiple perspectives and also because the fieldwork programme

(according to the conceptual analysis of this researcher) is essentially an experiential or discovery learning process that is rooted in the hermeneutic tradition which stresses understanding and interpretation (cf the significance of "verstehen" in Section 3.4.1 and of discovery learning in Section 3.4.4).

It is particularly suited to intensive study of small to intermediate-size programmes and is flexible in that it accommodates a variety of methods ranging from the quantitative to the qualitative. The most recent contributions to the quantitative/qualitative debate have pointed to the complementarity of the approaches and have urged an integration of methods (Cf discussion in Section 4.10).

The peculiar applicability and relevance of this methodology for the investigation of fieldwork is predicated on the following statement by acknowledged experts in evaluation :

The [illuminative] evaluator's task ... is to elucidate and clarify a number of related issues that have to do with the operation of the scheme in practice, its philosophy, its perceived advantages and disadvantages, and its intended and unintended consequences (Parlett & Dearden, 1977 : 46).

The Open University arranged a seminar to discuss the differences between quantitative and qualitative research in the social sciences and humanities (Wilson, 1980). Two of the points made at the seminar were that the study of cases rather

than samples was an appropriate method for an in-depth analysis of situations and that the analysis of case data proceeds by interpretation rather than by causal analysis. Accordingly, interpretive analysis and understanding are more important than causal analysis :

The application of results of qualitative research must take place through a comparison of a given situation with that reported : the researcher says, "This is what I believe to be the case in the situations I have studied. Examine my evidence and my interpretation and consider for yourself whether the conclusions I reach are applicable to the situation" (Wilson, 1980 : 26).

The alternative approach to evaluation research, embodied in qualitative methods, has received significant support from Donald Campbell and Lee Cronbach, leading exponents of the dominant research paradigm derived from the hypothetico-deductive methodology of the natural sciences. House comments on the significance of their recent advocacy of the usefulness and appropriateness of qualitative methods :

...when two of the leading scholars of measurement and experimental design, Cronbach and Campbell, strongly support qualitative studies, that is strong endorsement indeed (1977 : 18).

In a recent review article on research methodology, Hirst, the eminent educational philosopher and theorist lent his weighty support to qualitative research. He made the rather wry observation that

The quality of research that is entirely dependent on number-crunching is often impoverished - an ounce of insight is worth a mountain of multiple regression (1987 : 69).

Magoon, by citing examples of recent educational research studies, illustrates the acceptability and growing use of qualitative methodologies in evaluation research (1977), a finding that is supported by the following comment of Campbell, a researcher prominently associated with the quantitative tradition :

If qualitative and quantitative evaluations were to be organized on the same programs, I would expect them to agree. If they did not, I feel we should regard it possible that the quantitative was the one in error (1978 : 200).

Writing in 1982, Datta, Director of the Office of Libraries and Learning Technologies in the U S Department of Education, reported that within the past five years all of the evaluation studies (with a single exception) commissioned by the Education Department were qualitative studies (1982 : 141).

4.10 Integration of methods

One does not have to make a rigid choice between the quantitative and the qualitative methods approach. It is possible to locate one's study somewhere on the continuum between the two and employ a variety of relevant techniques that have their roots in different fields. The reason for combining methods and adopting an eclectic approach is advanced by Reichardt and Cook (1979 : 21). They suggest that

because of the multiplicity of purposes for which an evaluation is carried out it is appropriate to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in order to handle both process and outcomes. In their view a combination of methods will achieve the purposes of an evaluation which they identify as the following :

- monitoring of the programme
- impact assessment
- causal explanation (1979 : 21).

A combination of methods will lead to a greater understanding of the programme and will also be a way of correcting possible bias in each method (1979 : 21). (The use of the strategy of triangulation by employing different methods is expanded on in Section 4.13.)

Trow, the eminent American researcher, comments that qualitative data, used with survey data, can help the researcher refine and support his interpretation. Supplementary data, often qualitative, allow the researcher to go beyond tabulation to the underlying processes "which are usually the matters of real interest of which the empirical findings are more or less crude indicators" (1967 : 338).

Thus one need not rely on any single methodology : the researcher should rather draw upon relevant methodology from several disciplines. The important aspect to realize is that one is not bound to counting or quantifying reality in settings and circumstances that do not warrant or allow such

measurement. It is also important to realize that illuminative evaluation makes use of quantitative data and methods where appropriate (Parlett & Dearden, 1977 : 32). Illuminative evaluation does not comprise "a methodological package but a general research strategy" (Parlett & Dearden, 1977 :16) which might include questionnaires, interviews, observation and analysis of documents, either personal or organizational (Wilson, 1980 : 25).

Patton stresses that the techniques can range from those in the inductive, naturalistic, discovery mode to a verification mode where a more deductive approach to data collection and verification is required (Patton, 1980 : 46), and that the researcher can move between the phenomenological encounters with research settings to more hypothetico-deductive attempts to verify "hypotheses" or sharpen ideas (Patton, 1980 : 111).

Although some evaluators adopt and promote a particular methodology, the tendency is to recognize the value of an eclectic approach as the debate has moved beyond attempts to establish the intrinsic superiority of one approach over another to attempts to integrate both types of methods in one evaluation (Cf Cook & Reichardt, 1979; Filstead, 1979; Madey, 1982; Smith & Louis, 1982). The advice given by Cronbach et al is representative of this tendency :

The evaluator will be wise not to declare allegiance to either a quantitative-manipulative-summative or to a qualitative-naturalistic-descriptive methodology. He can draw on both styles at appropriate times in appropriate amounts. Those who advocate an evaluative plan devoid of one kind of information or another carry the burden of justifying such exclusions (1980 : 233).

The entire issue of volume 26 of *American behavioral scientist* is devoted to issues and applications in multimethod policy research, in which prominent researchers give an account of their evaluation research in which they employed a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods (Smith & Louis, 1982).

4.11 The case study

As a research strategy in illuminative evaluation, the case study - a detailed examination and analysis of a particular programme - is very suitable in this instance because of its particular advantages which are summarised by Knapper : it can include formal and objective data as well as subjective evidence and is therefore flexible and subtle. It also allows the researcher to comment on matters that are difficult to quantify, such as ambience (1980 : 91). A case study, according to Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis involves "study of an instance in action" (1980 : 49); and an "analytical description of an event, a process, an institution or a program" according to Hoaglin et al (1982 : 126-127). The researcher selects a bounded system within which issues are indicated, discovered or studied so that an understanding of the case (e.g a teaching programme) is possible (Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis, 1980 : 49). Guba and Lincoln define case

study as "any descriptive or evaluative analysis of a common social unit, a local program, or an agency" (1981 : 247).

Because context is part of the study, there will normally be too many variables for the number of observations made, thus making standard experimental and survey designs unsuitable although they might be used for part of the study (Yin, 1981(b) : 59).

Stake summarizes the advantages of using the case study as follows :

... because of the universality and importance of experiential understanding and because of their compatibility, case studies can be expected to have an epistemological advantage over other enquiry methods as a basis for naturalistic generalization (Stake, 1983 : 284).

Stenhouse commends the case study design for educational research whose purpose is the making of sound and refined educational judgments on the grounds that, although the case study requires more laborious and extensive collection of data, it yields more useful information on which to base sound conclusions than the typical product of the traditional approach which is usually reduced to an index (1980 : 5).

The case study method is not distinguished by a special way of collecting data (as is sometimes erroneously thought) but its distinguishing characteristic is

that each respondent (group or institution, etc.) is looked upon as a unit and that analysis aims to retain this unitary nature of the individual case and to emphasize the relationship between its various attributes (Moser & Kalton, 1972 : 466).

In a fieldwork programme there are some benefits, advantages and other effects that are difficult to measure and quantify. The case study represents one appropriate method that acknowledges the limitations of separating the components into discrete entities and attempts to describe and analyse these complexities by considering not only effects, but also process variables and context. The capturing of the total context is its strength as it can take into account the view of the programme as a dynamic inter-related entity (Glaser & Backer, 1972).

Datta has analysed the recent impact in evaluation research of case study research designs compared with exclusively quantitative designs (1982). In her investigation she concludes that case studies have made greater impact on policy makers (in the U S) and that the exclusively quantitative approaches have generated considerable methodological criticism and dispute which has not been so with case studies (1982 : 137). One of the reasons for this, she concludes, is that the quantitative studies have yielded few and indeterminate findings while the case studies have been "finding-rich" (1982 : 139) and offer greater returns in understanding what is happening in educational programmes and why (1982 : 141).

There are, however, difficulties with the method which have to be confronted and for which solutions are being sought by methodologists. (A critique of the new paradigm - including the case study as one of the variants of qualitative research methodology - and attempts at meeting problems of research design are discussed in the following two sections.)

4.12 Criticism of qualitative approach

The strengths of the qualitative methodology in evaluation research and its relevance to this study have been discussed. There are criticisms of the approach, too. One of the objections is concern over the "subjective" nature of the approach reflected in such critical questions as :

- Can interpretation be scientific ?
- Can the study be replicated and identical "results" and findings be achieved ?
- Should assertions not be documented quantitatively ?
- Can impressionistic accounts be reliable ?
- Should so much reliance be placed on the subjective experience of the subjects ?

The frequently made charge of subjectivity of the qualitative approach (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 289) is usually contrasted with the objectivity of quantitative research. Scriven refers to the contrast between the two :

"Subjective" refers to what concerns or occurs to the individual subject and his experiences, qualities and dispositions, while "objective" refers to what a number of subjects or judges experience - in short, to phenomena in the public domain (1972 : 95).

The charge of subjectivity is based on the criticism that qualitative research places too much emphasis on the subjective experience of the participants (Stake, 1985 : 4350).

In 1963 Campbell and Stanley, prominent among researchers in the experimental tradition, published a forceful critique of the case study, one of the qualitative methodologies, which was very influential until 1979 when Cook and Campbell reviewed the judgment (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Campbell, 1979). The objections to the "one-shot case study design" are well known :

Such studies often involve tedious collection of specific detail, careful observation and the like, and in such instances involve the error of misplaced precision. How much more valuable the study would be if one set of observations were reduced by half and the saved effort directed to the study in equal detail of an appropriate comparison instance. It seems well-nigh unethical at present to allow, as theses or dissertations in education, case studies of this nature (1963 : 177).

In essence their criticism was directed at the lack of a control group in single case studies, which, as such, lack any basis for comparison concentrating, as they do, on the implementation of a single "treatment". Such an approach is contrary to the experimentalist's position which requires a control group that has not been exposed to the "treatment".

The criticisms of case studies and other qualitative methodologies, usually raise questions about two types of

validity : external and internal (Cohen & Manion, 1985 : 105). The distinction between external and internal validity was first made by Campbell (1957) and expanded upon by Campbell and Stanley who define external validity in the following way :

External validity asks the question of generalizability : To what populations, settings, treatment variables and measurement variables can this effect be generalized ? (1967 : 5).

Threats to the external validity of findings consist of those effects that reduce comparability (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 228). Kennedy proposes the term "strength of external validity" or "strength of generalizability" to convey the idea that generalization is a judgment of degree rather than a simple and absolute condition of presence or absence (1979 : 665). (Measures to increase generalizability in qualitative research are discussed in Section 4.13.)

With respect to external validity, critics assert that there are constraints in qualitative methodologies of applying the findings to other situations because statistical generalization, the method used in quantitative methodologies based on probabilistic sampling, is inapplicable in qualitative methodologies (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 228).

Goetz and LeCompte define internal validity as follows :

Internal validity refers to the extent to which scientific observations and measurements are authentic representations of some reality (1984 : 210).

Cook and Campbell define internal validity as the extent to which one can infer with confidence the relationship between cause and outcome (1979 : 37). In quantitative methodologies, to counter the effect that other factors might have on the causal relationship, variables that might affect the relationship are controlled (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 290).

A key difference between the two approaches appears to reside in the question of numbers and the implication of representativeness and generalizability. Statistical significance is usually dependent on the number of subjects used in a study - the greater the number of subjects, the more likely it is the researcher will get statistically significant results (Carver, 1978 : 387). Because of the relationship between statistical significance and sample size, positive findings may be dismissed because they come from a study with small numbers and therefore fail to reach an acceptable significance level (Light & Pillemer, 1982 : 19). The researcher using qualitative methodologies, such as the case study, very often has no control over the number of subjects in the study because different sampling methods are used. In a case study, the researcher is unable to increase the number of participants because of the boundedness of the case. (The technique of sampling and the concept of boundedness are discussed in Section 4.16.)

In those methodologies where the researcher uses him/herself as an observation instrument (e.g. participant observation), this can lead to subjectivity (Taft, 1985 : 1731). Objectivity is also threatened if the researcher relies on one source of information only or actively introduces his/her ideological orientation into the inquiry. Related to the problem of relying on limited sources of information is the "holistic fallacy" - a tendency for the researcher to perceive all aspects of a social situation as congruent and to read into a data set more coherence and congruence than is warranted (Huberman & Crandall, 1982 : 71)

Reliability is another problem facing qualitative researchers. The concept refers to the extent to which the study can be replicated. "This poses a herculean problem for researchers concerned with naturalistic behavior or unique phenomena" because naturalistic inquiry, by its very nature, rules out the experimental control of conditions (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 210). Reliability is a prerequisite for validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 292).

Neo-Marxists have also criticized the interpretive paradigm in educational research, but on different grounds from the conventional critique. They complain that the interpretive approach focuses on educational issues without linking them in any depth to socio-economic analysis or taking into account the possibility of false consciousness of the subjects. Reynolds summarizes a representative criticism emanating from

critical theorists who perceive their function as not merely describing the world, but changing it :

In the focus of its work, the naturalistic perspective is concerned mostly with the "micro" world of the school and within-school interaction, neglecting to focus on the possible material determination of this phenomenological world. Naturalism accords to the social scientist the role of passive reporter of events and member accounts rather than interpreter of the world that Marxist analysis wishes the intellectual to adopt (Reynolds, 1980/1981 : 87).

4.13 Responses to the critique

In this section the researcher outlines the response to the critique of the qualitative approach in general and, more specifically, to the case study which is the research design selected for the present empirical investigation. The Marxist critique is distinct from the position adopted by quantitative methodologists and can, as such, be conveniently dealt with before answering the other charges which tend to have thematic coherence. The Marxist critique is pre-emptive of the position of other qualitative approaches in that it does not even attempt to espouse the notion of neutrality or objectivity - a position adopted by researchers in the interpretive paradigm - and is overtly political and concerned explicitly with socio-economic and political transformation (Candy, 1987 : 8). The differences are, therefore, ideological and rooted in a politico-economic commitment and consequently more difficult to accommodate than are methodological differences in the context of the discussion in this chapter.

The distinction between the quantitative/qualitative bipolar labels which lie along the continuum from "hard" to "soft" do not refer, as is sometimes implicit in criticism of qualitative approaches, to the presence or absence of rigour and discipline in the methods of inquiry but the distance from or closeness to the experimental mode of research (Talmage, 1982 : 608). The criticisms of qualitative research tend to over-emphasize the reliability of other approaches and the validity of the results achieved by assuming that the researcher's stance is objective and determined only by facts. This assumption is being challenged on the grounds that even in experimental research the researcher uses judgment and interpretation both in the selection of methods and in the evaluation of findings. The scientific gathering of data does not lead to knowledge without the human intervention of intellect to make sense of the data. A preoccupation with accumulating more and more data in the hope that reality will thus be revealed tends to lead to what Levi Strauss calls "the inductive illusion" (quoted in Odi, 1982 : 314).

Qualitative researchers, no less than quantitative researchers, have sought methods to improve the quality of observations by introducing controls (Cronbach, 1982 : 27). There are points of similarity between the two approaches. One point of similarity is a concern for design and discipline. Both approaches depend on design and aim at disciplined inquiry. The qualitative approach is distinguished, for example, from journalism by its method, design and discipline. While the methods to achieve this

might differ, very often, from those in the quantitative paradigm, the purpose is similar, viz. to obviate inaccuracies and distortions, reduce error and to render the results and evidence available for public examination.

Cronbach and Suppes outline the attributes of disciplined inquiry :

Whatever the character of a study, if it is disciplined the investigator has anticipated the traditional questions that are pertinent. He institutes control at each step of information collection and reasoning to avoid the sources of error to which these questions refer. If the errors cannot be eliminated he takes them into account by discussing the margin for error in his conclusions. Thus, the report of a disciplined inquiry has a texture that displays the raw materials entering the argument and the logical processes by which they were compressed and rearranged to make the conclusion credible (1969 : 15-16).

According to the authoritative exposition of educational research methods by Manion and Cohen, the interpretive paradigm can be regarded as "scientific" because its methods are "in their own way every bit as rigorous as the ones used in positivist research" (1985 : 39). While Goetz and LeCompte acknowledge the particular difficulties that face qualitative researchers, they note that quantitative researchers also have to guard against threats to validity and reliability, but that qualitative researchers employ different strategies to address threats to the credibility of their research (1984 : 209).

The very substantial literature of the social sciences devoted to methodological issues testifies to the fact that every methodology of inquiry has weaknesses and limitations (Cf Mouton, 1988). Williams points out the difficulty inherent in the aims of reliability and validity in social science investigation employing "scientific" and objective methods :

... the ambiguity of the concept "observable facts", in its common limitation to facts subject to physical measurement, or repeatable and verifiable measurement. It is argued not only that this neglects the position of the observer, who is also a fact and not merely an instrument, but that it neglects experiences and questions which are not "measurable" in this way (1976 : 201).

In order to counter the criticism of the tendency towards subjective, personal or eccentric findings, Lincoln and Guba suggest the use of the audit trail as a means of confirming the dependability of the findings (1985 : 318). The concept of the audit trail is attributed to Halpern (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 319). His concept involves the evaluator's keeping records which will be available for inspection in the following categories :

- raw data e.g tape recordings, records and documents
- data reduction and analysis products, e.g. unitized information (on 12,5 X 7,5 cards)
- data reconstruction and synthesis products, including structure of categories
- process notes, including methodological notes and notes referring to trustworthiness and dependability

- material relating to intentions and dispositions including personal notes
- instrument development information including pilot forms and preliminary schedules (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 319-320).

Stenhouse's solution to the problem of accessibility of evidence in case studies for the purpose of subsequent critical assessment is similar to the concept of the audit trail (1980). He proposes that the case record (e.g. interview transcripts) might serve as an evidential base for those who would like to follow the trail of evidence. These transcripts could be deposited in an archive or even filmed and the microfilm be made available (1980 : 5). This suggested procedure is not dissimilar from the practice adopted in some (natural) scientific disciplines where readings, calculations and other raw data are deposited on microfiche at a central archive, e.g the British Library. As a coda, Stenhouse adds that the accessibility of data is not a singular problem in the qualitative approach, but that the monitoring of standards and access to data is necessary in all fields of educational research and has been faulty in the traditional approach too (1980 : 5).

Parlett and Dearden counter the criticism of subjectivity comprehensively by pointing out that no research is totally free from bias, error and subjective interpretation and that all research is reliant on the skill, intelligence, perception and personal judgment of the human researcher (1977 : 21) even

in research where objectivity is claimed as a major virtue. The mere act of quantifying data, for example, does not, of itself, guarantee objectivity and rule out distorting effects and bias of the researcher. Much of what is taken to be experimental measures are, in fact, quantifications of subjective judgement, according to the eminent quantitative methodologist Campbell (1978 : 196).

Shulman argues that all research designs to some degree have problematic claims to generalizability (1981 : 9). Generalization is warranted where subjects have been randomly sampled from the entire population to which the findings are applied - a condition that applies in very few cases, as was convincingly argued by Cornfield and Tukey who demonstrated that sampling can never be truly random (1956). Even in the quantitative tradition the researcher can never be sure of the generalizability from his sample to other groups and, at best, has to build inferential bridges between the sample and other groups (Shulman, 1981 : 9). On these grounds Shulman argues that case study researchers have a problem of generalizability that is not different in kind from that of researchers using quantitative methods and that they likewise have to build inferential bridges (1981 : 9).

The question of generalizability which rests on inferred similarities can never be unambiguously certified either in the quantitative or in the qualitative mode (Campbell & Stanley, 1967 : 5). In their discussion of why generalizability is no more an inherent attribute of

quantitative than of qualitative research, Reichardt and Cook also refute the commonly held assumption that generalizability depends only on sample size (1979 : 15). They concur with Cornfield and Tukey (1956) that true random sampling is very rare :

Only in very few case, such as when using survey sampling with random selection, is generalization from sample data to a population based on statistical reasoning. Ususally generalization is far more informal and therefore more inductive and potentially fallible ... While a large and diverse sample of cases can aid in such informal generalizations, so can depth of understanding of a single case (1979 : 15).

Their observation reinforces Carver's argument that even in quantitative research it is the researcher who exercises control and subjective judgment about the number of subjects sampled, an important variable influencing the results of the quantitative research (1978 : 388).

Size of sample and sampling methods do constitute major differences between the quantitative and the qualitative paradigms. The large survey samples in large scale surveys have been useful in defining parameters of broad areas, as is pointed out by Maliphant (1986 : 80). But the establishment of statistical significance of correlations - an attribute of these studies - does not thereby establish their psychological or educational value (Maliphant, 1986 : 80). These strictures on the interpretation of statistically significant results, dependent as they are on size of sample, are also pointed out by Carver (1978 : 388) who observes that as long ago as 1931

Tyler pointed out that a statistically significant difference is not necessarily an important difference and that a difference that is statistically nonsignificant may be an important difference (1978 : 389). (Cf reference in Section 4.16 to the question of sample size, especially in this investigation. The question of sampling in qualitative research is an important one and will be discussed at length in Section 4.16.)

Among those researchers who have cautioned against an over-emphasis on quantitative precision are Mahoney (1976 : 102) and the statistician Tukey who argued :

The most important maxim for data analysis to heed, and one which many statisticians have shunned is this : "Far better an approximate answer to the right question, which is often vague, than an exact answer to the wrong question, which can always be made precise" (1963 : 13).

The presumed superior capacity for generalizability of quantitative methodology, in contrast to qualitative methodology, has also been refuted by Campbell, the leading quantitative methodologist who has recently shifted his position on the case study in a paper that has been widely cited as lending considerable support to the legitimacy of the research design of the case study (1979). This is a noteworthy departure from his earlier criticism of the case study on the grounds that it lacked a control group even though it attempted to establish the effect of some "treatment" (1961 : 344). (Cf Section 4.12 for reference to

the dismissal of the case study by Campbell and Stanley (1963).)

In his paper of 1979, Campbell provides a rationale for the case study on the grounds that its design has the means of validity testing. In so doing he draws an analogy between "degrees of freedom" in two types of study. The first type is an experimental type involving statistical analysis of data from a number of independent cases and the second involves analysis of data within a single case. In the first type of study, data from each additional case provides another degree of freedom allowing testing of the hypothesis. In the second type - the case study - each additional datum within the case provides another instance (degree of freedom) to test the hypothesis. The analysis in the case study can be either quantitative or qualitative (1979 : 49-67). (Cf Section 4.10 for extended arguments concerning the complementarity of quantitative and qualitative methods.)

Campbell's review of the case study design is in accord with the conclusions of Reichardt and Cook who compare ease of generalizability of different designs in terms of size of sample :

While a large and diverse sample of cases can aid in such informal generalizations, so can depth of understanding of a single case (1979 : 15).

There has been methodological progress in the area of generalizability of case studies and other qualitative

approaches. If the sample has not been drawn at random, inference about generalization has to be justified by non-statistical arguments (Cronbach, 1982 : 116). Herriott and Firestone suggest a strategy for increasing generalizability of qualitative research, including case study research (1983). They suggest a multi-site approach where the same data collection techniques and analytical methods are used. The results are generalizable in that they can be applied to a range of comparable settings and inferences can be made to other settings that fall between the conditions of those examined (1983 : 16).

Various other devices have been developed to strengthen inferences. Tripp suggests that case study researchers address the problem of generalizability by relying on comparability rather than transference of findings to groups not investigated - a technique commonly employed in quantitative research (1985 : 357). Comparability is achieved by documenting very carefully the characteristics and conditions of the case and constructs arrived at so that they can serve as a base for comparison. The better the description of the programme implementation and setting, the better the grounds for judgment required in extrapolation (Cronbach, 1982 : 296). Careful documentation will meet one of the frequent criticisms made of qualitative research, viz. that researchers pay scant attention to evidence for conclusions or the operations by which evidence is assessed (Becker, 1958 : 659).

Qualitative researchers acknowledge that different research designs can strengthen or impair validity. Cronbach offers advice on the means of strengthening the internal validity of evaluation research (or reproducibility, a term he prefers to replication) :

- standardize procedures, which incidentally improves the chances that the investigator will get consistent results
- give a clear and complete description of procedures so that the investigators working independently might get results consistent with those of the original study (1982 : 247).

Even though it is unlikely that evaluation studies will be reproduced, using devices for furthering reproducibility is important because uncertainty is reduced to the extent that the report of the design will convince a critic that the findings would be consistent with findings if the replication were to be attempted (Cronbach, 1982 : 333).

Kidder argues that the use of different data collection methods can test the reliability and validity of qualitative methods (Kidder, 1981 : 245-6). In a qualitative design one can make repeated observations of the same phenomenon. The repeated observations

are like reliability replications in that they are observations made by the same observer; they are like validity confirmations in that they are different manifestations of the same construct (Kidder, 1981 : 246).

Repeated instances of the same variable or concept act as a check of reliability and provides further evidence for argument. The multiple observations act like multiple dimensions or repeated measurements on a quantitative scale - they demonstrate that the construct is present. Since the observations are made with different methods, they provide convergent validation (Kidder, 1981 : 253).

Kidder's strategy is similar to Campbell's claim that the "degrees of freedom" of measurements in a case study enhance generalizability (1979). In the same paper, he urges the use of different methods (Campbell, 1979 : 67).

Internal validity of qualitative research is its major strength when it is compared with experimental or other quantitative designs (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 221), a claim that has been supported by Reichardt and Cook (1979). Internal validity of qualitative research is achieved by the reliance on the constant comparison and refinement of constructs.

The wide variety of sources drawn upon provides a system of internal checks and a means of triangulating on issues from different directions methodologically (Parlett, 1981 : 222). Triangulation means using two or more methods of data collection so as to guard against the danger of distortion and to provide a means of cross-checking and validating interpretations (Cohen & Manion, 1985 : 254 - 255). The data generated using the different techniques, when taken together,

give an indication of accuracy of findings and construct validity; or, in the words of Bouchard, the convergence between the methods "enhances our belief that the results are valid and not a methodological artifact" (1976 : 268). The metaphor of triangulation is taken from surveying and navigation that use multiple reference points to locate an object's position (Smith, 1975 : 273).

The rationale for the strategy of triangulation is clearly expressed by Denzin :

No single method is uniformly superior; each has its own special strengths and weaknesses. It is time for sociologists to recognize this fact and to move on to a position that permits them to approach their problems with all relevant and appropriate methods, to move on to the strategy of triangulation (1978 : 380).

The qualitative evaluation approach must be validated within its own terms. It is not proper to reject findings based on this approach as invalid by appealing to the argument that there are insufficient observational control procedures that one would expect in a quantitative approach. The results must be judged from a perspective of internal logic and consistency and whether, depending on the context, this research strategy is more appropriate than another or whether the methods have been applied in research settings where they are poorly suited. Different kinds of research designs must be judged by their own criteria. It is erroneous to apply the criteria of the positivistic scientific method to designs and strategies that are not located in that tradition (Cf Section 4.7). The

particular research paradigm must engender its own validating criteria. (Cf earlier discussion outlining procedures designed to strengthen validity and reliability in qualitative research.)

In the absence of tests of certitude, the question is asked how the finding, interpretation or explanation can be validated. Hirsch argues that if we cannot apply Popper's test of falsifiability, then the researcher is justified in using the probability test. "In the absence of directly experienced certitude", a condition of the human sciences, one should employ probability judgments which are based on available evidence (1967 : 175).

4.14 Research design of current investigation

The preceding critical analysis of the competing research paradigms, the consideration of the limitations and strengths of the various approaches and the assessment of methods to guard against errors, all provided evidence based on which the researcher could select the most appropriate design for this study.

There has been growth in the literature and work being done in evaluation research evidenced by the recent establishment of journals and yearbooks devoted to the topic (e.g. *Evaluation review* and *Evaluation studies review annual*). The researcher was able to benefit from the considerable amount of work being done and documented in this area. A number of qualitative evaluative studies were studied very carefully for themes

relevant to the topic of investigation (e.g. a collection of essays edited by Marton et al (1984) was particularly useful in that all the evaluative studies employing qualitative methods focused on students' experience of higher education although none specifically looked at field experience.) Valuable guidance was gained from the classic and influential study by Entwistle and Ramsden (1983) based on interpretive foundations by focusing on student perceptions and emphasizing process rather than input/output, an approach selected by the researcher as suitable for this investigation after a consideration of all the strategies and approaches adopted for similar problems. The *Standards for evaluations of educational programs* published by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation in 1981 provided useful guidance to the researcher in the design of the evaluative study and can also serve as a means of checking this section of the investigation. (The *Standards* are reproduced in Stufflebeam & Shinkfield (1985 : 11-15).

Stake's approach (1967), viz. that of merging intrinsic evaluation (a philosophical investigation which examines the logical coherence of the rationale of the programme) and empirical evaluation (the actual observation and collection of empirical data relating to the operation of the programme) provided a framework of inquiry which informed the research design, that of drawing out the relationship between the intrinsic and empirical aspects of the programme. His approach suggests that four types of data need to be collected :

- intents, i.e. goals, aims and objectives
- transactions, i.e. what actually happened
- standards, i.e. the expectations residing in the intentions which have been transformed into some kind of norm
- judgments about the underpinning theory, the implementation and the outcomes (Stake, 1967)

Extensive discussions with educators and practitioners have given the researcher access to expert opinion on the subject of fieldwork. The researcher has also benefited from meeting, in mid-1987, with members of a research group at the Hebrew University in Jerusalem who are engaged in evaluation research. In addition, valuable advice on research design was gained from discussions with a researcher in that group doing a comparable study in science education.

4.14.1 Aims of the evaluation

The aims of the critical inquiry have been guided by the conceptual framework developed by the researcher and the intellectual traditions of the evaluation approach adopted. The aims have been to investigate systematically all factors and elements in the fieldwork programme.

Implicit in the purpose of the investigation is to test for presumed effects and whether there is a diversity of attitudes (of educators, practitioners and students) towards the role and meaning of fieldwork and to compare the effects not only with the goals but also with the learning needs of the

students. The concept of user needs assessment in evaluation is pervasive and often the starting point in any evaluation. Patton suggests that its corollary, asset assessment, should be equally important as an aim in evaluation (1981 : 79). This allows the evaluator to establish not only deficiencies that need correction but also strengths that can be built upon and assets that can be incorporated in programme development (Patton, 1981 : 81).

The research questions flowing from the various issues indicated above suggested that the following areas be investigated :

- rationale and philosophy of the programme
- specific objectives
- educational variables necessary for the effective operation of the programme
- conditions prevailing at the programme sites
- important implementation variables and their effects
- practices and intentions
- effects of the programme and perceived gains
- students' perspective of the experience

This range takes into account actual as well as intended practice and requires a consideration of the dynamics of interaction, communication and institutional values (Popkewitz, 1984 : 139) which tend to be obscured by evaluation practices relying on the objectives or measurement models. All of these constitute important information that will assist in the evaluation. Based on these findings, the

intention is to propose a model of fieldwork and to make recommendations regarding the design of a fieldwork programme. In the formulation of guidelines an attempt will be made to incorporate a variety of viewpoints about the purpose of fieldwork with the findings of the evaluative study.

4.15 Comparison of cases

In order to enhance the possibility of generalizing the findings of this study, the researcher adopted the strategy of comparing two cases, for the reasons outlined below. An examination of two cases (i.e. two fieldwork programmes) provides the opportunity for discrepancy comparisons, if necessary, and for the assessment of similarities and differences in more than one dimension. Having more than one site increases the scope of the study, and by comparing cases increases the explanatory power and generalizability :

One can establish the range of generality of a finding or exploration and, at the same time, pin down the conditions under which that finding will occur (Miles & Huberman, 1984 : 151).

Generalizations are arrived at from case studies not by way of statistical inference but by means of logical inference based on the power of the theoretical model (Silverman, 1985 : 114). Kennedy makes the point that one is trying to generalize from one case to another rather than from a case to a population (1979 : 676).

Herriott and Firestone argue that cross-site comparison is an important way of optimizing generalization of case studies and demonstrate the effectiveness of this method by referring, *inter alia*, to the Rural Experimental Schools Study which successfully integrated quantitative and qualitative data and where generalizability was enhanced by cross-site comparison (1983 : 16). (Cf also the discussion in Section 4.13 relating to difficulties of generalization in qualitative research in general.)

The purpose of evaluating and comparing two fieldwork programmes is to gather information, to interpret this information in the light of the conceptual framework already developed and to judge the effects of the programmes on the students in terms of their perceptions. Since context has been identified as such an important factor in the interpretive paradigm, the sampling must take into account the critical nature of context.

4.16 Sampling methods employed in this study

In case study research, different sampling methods are used from those employed in quantitative research. In the current investigation, random sampling among all the universities constituting the population was not considered to be an effective measure because this would have so fragmented the responses as to have stripped the contexts of all significance. The decision was accordingly made not to sample the entire student population across all library schools offering fieldwork programmes but rather to choose two

programmes that would be representative. This decision was based on the demands and logic of the research questions (which have already been identified). The research problems of this investigation require a process-based investigation on a smaller scale rather than a large scale survey type approach which might incorporate greater numbers of students, at disparate sites, but with fewer variables.

Patton points out that the evaluation often needs to focus on a programme that might be problematic and on another that exemplifies excellence and that "evaluators think through what cases they could learn most from, and those are the cases selected for study" (1980 : 101). This is known as purposive sampling, used in those instances where the context is critical, in contradistinction to random sampling which is characteristic of quantitative research (Patton, 1980 : 101).

In Patton's analysis of sampling methods, random sampling, based on statistical considerations, is only one of a range of methods available to the social science researcher. The full range, beyond random sampling, worthy of consideration, is classified as follows :

- sampling extreme or deviant cases to obtain information about cases which might be unusual or problematic
- sampling typical cases to avoid rejection of information on the grounds that it refers to peculiar instances

- maximum variation sampling which increases the diversity of the cases (e.g. geographical variation)
- sampling critical cases to permit maximum application of information to other cases, because if the information is valid for that case, it is likely to be valid for other cases. This strategy is used, most often, where only one case is selected, the grounds for selection being that if the programme "doesn't make it there, it won't make it anywhere".

From this typology of purposive sampling in qualitative research it can be seen that it differs from sampling in quantitative research in that it is done on informational rather than statistical considerations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 202); i.e. the sampling increases the range and scope of data thus collected (1985 : 40).

One of the sites has been selected because its fieldwork programme has not been revised in the light of the SAILIS Guidelines on fieldwork (because the department was awaiting the outcome of the current study). This programme is offered at a long established library school and has evolved over the years without major evaluation or revision. The second site has been chosen because, according to expert consensual opinion, it offers a well developed programme designed according to the current SAILIS guidelines. This attempt at purposive sampling satisfies Patton's criterion of maximum variation sampling which ensures that the researcher can have

confidence in patterns that emerge as common in the sites while at the same time being able to account for variations that emerge to make the programmes unique as they adapt to different settings (1980 : 102). Goetz and LeCompte define this method as reputational-case selection which

is a variation of extreme-case or unique-case selection. In this procedure the researcher chooses instances on the recommendation of experienced experts in an area (1984 : 82).

The cases investigated in this study have been chosen because they provide the optimum possibility for investigating both shared attributes and unique characteristics.

Opportunities for explanation are enhanced by the possibility of cross-contextual analysis. The variation in programme "treatments" will provide evidence as to the programme's utility in different conditions and thus allow the researcher to identify those aspects of the programme that appear to be functionally contributing to the outcomes (Kennedy, 1979 : 669). This analysis permits distinction between fundamental and superficial attributes of the programmes, thus allowing conclusions to be drawn about effects in terms of the fundamental basis of the programme. This in turn increases the opportunity for generalization (Kennedy, 1979 : 669).

The particular cases are selected because they exhibit some general theoretical principle, as distinct from aiming for representativeness, which is the typical goal of quantitative survey research when using random sampling. The case under

investigation becomes representative of a general principle rather than of a given population per se (Mitchell, 1983). The existence of common patterns of effects across the sites, in spite of implementation of the programme and other context variables, lends support to the generalizability of those effects and also to the causal relationship uncovered (Kennedy, 1979 : 670).

The task of locating potential data sources within each case in this study was simplified because of the boundedness of the population. Goetz and LeCompte define boundedness of populations in the following way :

Some populations are naturally bounded. They exist independently of research interest and are formed, or at least recognized, and confirmed by their constituent participants (1984 : 85).

An example of a bounded population is a classroom. The classes of students in this investigation thus qualify as naturally bounded populations and the students are therefore obvious sources of data. The advantage of studying an organizationally bounded group is that it is discrete and can be arranged as an entire, complete population from which selection and sampling can be conducted with certainty and confidence, thus facilitating generalization and comparison (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 85). Educational researchers commonly study these naturally bounded, geographically located groups such as classrooms or groups of students all following the same course.

For these reasons, sampling within the cases did not present problems. If the sample is self-selecting or is small enough to be surveyed in its entirety, the need for sampling falls away (Martyn & Lancaster, 1981 : 6). Moreover, the greater the homogeneity of the sample, the smaller it can be (Busha & Harter, 1980 : 59). In fact, Parten has argued that a small sample without bias which will yield authentic data is preferable to a large sample which is not representative of the universe (1950 : 299-302).

4.16.1 Sample size

Purposive sampling raises, inevitably, the question of sample size. (Cf observations made with respect to smallness of samples made by Busha & Harter (1980) and Parten (1950) in the preceding paragraph.) Size of sample is related to testing for statistical significance : i.e. a test to determine whether an effect, difference or finding is the result of chance (Carver, 1978 : 388). The assumption is erroneously held by many researchers in education that a statistically significant result suggests that the probability that the result is "reliable, valid and important" (Carver, 1978 : 397). Carver argues that statistical significance testing has been manipulated by researchers to produce results with a spurious importance because statistical significance does not mean actual significance. He explains his point thus :

If a researcher chooses a sample size of 10 or less, a statistically significant result would not be obtained, although a large sample size would yield such results. In this way, the experimenter can directly control the probability of obtaining statistically significant results simply by controlling the sample size (1978 : 388).

His criticism of statistical significance testing being the measure of the reliability of a study reinforces the observation made by Hays that

Virtually any study can be made to show significant results if one uses enough subjects regardless of how nonsensical the content may be (1963 : 326).

Carver recommends that researchers should ignore statistical testing when designing research because a study with results that cannot be meaningfully interpreted without recourse to statistical tests of significance is a poorly designed study (1978 : 394). Instead researchers should place greater reliance on collecting the best possible evidence relevant to the research purpose (1978 : 394) and that they follow the advice of Morrison and Henkel to use common sense, informed judgment and the other remaining research methods "to achieve the scope, form, process and purpose of scientific inference" (1970 : 311). (Cf the cautionary arguments referred to in Section 4.13 against placing too much confidence in large samples and statistically significant results.)

It follows, then, that large samples are not necessarily superior or that working with small numbers is necessarily a drawback in research design. Bearing in mind the small numbers involved in the current investigation, and in order to order to test the viability and impact of research designs with small sample sizes, the researcher did a literature search for research studies in the field of education, higher education and clinical experience using methodologies that incorporated a small number of subjects, and that were located in the qualitative rather than the quantitative tradition.

This sub-investigation performed a number of important functions for the researcher :

- it permitted an evaluation of the methodologies employed, and an assessment of the strengths and limitations of the research designs
- a study of the various research designs was a source of useful insight into the potential of the approach for the current study
- some of the findings reported have direct relevance for this investigation because many of them are thematically related to the topic of this study, e.g. student learning
- the study demonstrated the contexts suited to the application of these methodologies and gave an indication of the importance, significance and impact of some of the studies which have been, and continue to be, widely cited in the literature

- the investigation increased the researcher's confidence in the appropriateness of the approach chosen and developed for this study

Most of the studies found and examined are in the interpretive research tradition (using interviews, logbooks, diaries and questionnaires), or combined qualitative with quantitative methods. The following is a representative list of some 35 studies conducted in higher education (mainly Anglo-American) with thematic coherence and of direct relevance to the focus of this study, accompanied by a brief description of the topic and, in some cases, an assessment of their impact on subsequent research investigations :

- Bawden, Burke & Duffy (1979) : 23 teachers; teachers' conception of subject matter and instructional strategies
- Becher & Ade (1982) : a group of 23 students and a group of 9 students; a study of the relationship between field placement characteristics and student teacher performance
- Boud (1979) : 24 university students and 7 members of teaching staff; to investigate the effectiveness of laboratory courses
- Dahlgren (1975) : two groups of 19 students each ; to investigate the quality of learning outcomes
- Elliott (1976) : 40 teachers; a study of reflection in teaching
- Entwistle & Ramsden (1983) : 57 students; learning among university students; very widely cited study

- Garman (1973) : 10 student teachers; to investigate the effects of the seminar in supervision (Ph D thesis)
- Gibbs, Morgan & Taylor (1984) : 29 university students; investigation into conception of learning and approach to study
- Gibson (1973) : 18 students in a college of education; a study of the socialization of student teachers (Ph D thesis)
- Goodman (1985) : 12 education students; to study the effects of field-based experience
- Hodgson (1984) : 31 students; students' experience of and learning from lectures
- Hounsell (1984) : a group of 17 students and one of 16 students; to investigate student learning
- Hultgren (1982) : 11 students; a hermeneutical interpretation of the student-teaching experience (Ph D thesis)
- Iannoccone (1963) : 25 student teachers; the classic study of teacher socialization
- Larsson (1983) : 29 school teachers; to investigate teachers' conceptions of the experience of learning
- Larsson (1986) : 29 school teachers : a study of teachers' reflection on and conceptualization of professional practice
- Laurillard (1979) : 30 students; a study of contextual factors in student learning (Ph D thesis)

- Martin, Isherwood & Rapagna (1978) : 30 student teachers; to investigate the effects of supervisory styles on students' performance
- Marton & Säljö (1976) : 20 university students; the generally acknowledged *locus classicus* of student learning; very influential, having developed a new perspective on kinds of learning and having inspired many subsequent investigations into student learning as evidenced by reference to citation indexes
- Methany (1980) : a replication of the study of Bawden, Burke & Duffy (1979) (see above)
- Millar *et al* (1986) : 18 students : an evaluation of an innovative university curriculum
- Miller & Parlett (1974) : a study involving 30 students to investigate approaches to learning, using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Extensively quoted by researchers of higher education, particularly in the area of student assessment and its effect on student performance
- Pask (1976) : groups of 18, 14, 17, and 13 students; a design using both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate styles and strategies of learning; very influential and widely cited study
- Prytherch (1979) : 41 students; an investigation into the use of fieldwork in professional education of librarians using a correlational design
- Robertson (1984) : a group of 18 students and one of 7 students; to investigate student experience of higher education

- Säljo (1975) : 40 university students; to investigate student conceptions of learning
- Säljo (1982) : 6 students; widely cited study of student learning and understanding
- Svensson (1977) : 30 students; a study of qualitative differences in learning and study skills
- Sheffield (1974) : 23 university teachers ; a study of conceptions of teaching
- Shuma (1971) : 9 student teachers; a study of supervisory styles in student teaching (Ph D thesis)
- Skarak (1973) : 1 student teacher and 1 supervisor; a study of effective supervision (Ph D thesis)
- Taylor (1979) : 8 students; a theory of learning from the students' perspective (Ph D thesis)
- Yinger (1977) : 1 teacher; a study of teacher planning using ethnographic techniques (Ph D thesis)
- Yinger (1987) : 8 student teachers : a study of learning experiences during a practicum
- Zeichner & Tabachnik (1985) : 13 student teachers ; to investigate the development of teaching perspectives; widely cited studies by acknowledged experts in the field of initial professional socialization of teachers

The identification of a large number of studies in higher education conforming to the criteria outlined by the researcher has underlined a current trend in research into higher education noted by Richardson, the eminent British scholar :

Although there is a significant experimental tradition within educational research, the vast majority of work on learning in higher education is of a more naturalistic descriptive nature and typically involves situations that are much more recognizable as being at least analogous to conventional academic learning (1987 : 5).

Many of the studies cited have made a major contribution to an understanding of student learning, represent a powerful new movement towards qualitative methodologies and have been very influential in showing a viable and fruitful direction for research into student learning (Cf especially Dahlgren, Entwistle & Ramsden, Gibbs, Laurillard, Marton & Säljö, and Pask). Entwistle and Hounsell have identified a trend towards qualitative methodologies in research in student learning that draws heavily on the pioneering work of the researchers at the University of Gothenburg, viz. Dahlgren, Fransson, Larsson, Marton, Säljö, and Svensson, all of whom are concerned with the quality of student learning rather than with traditional measures of retention (Entwistle & Hounsell, 1979 : 359).

These studies incorporate aspects that parallel the current investigation and have relevance for the current investigation both for their methodological approaches and also for the significance of their substantive theoretical advances. The three studies of professional socialization of student teachers (Iannoccone, Goodman and Zeichner & Tabachnik) were also germane to this investigation, both as to methodological guidance and as to conceptualization of themes and categories that have proved applicable. Their studies show how, in the

process of socialization during the practicum, the students negotiate a complex set of institutional, professional and organizational structures.

It will be noted from the list of investigations (satisfying the particular criteria guiding the search) that the researcher was able to find no study on the broader topic of professional education for library and information science and only one study which investigated the fieldwork programme (Prytherch). Prytherch's evaluative study of the fieldwork programme is included in the list because of the small number of students participating in the investigation. However, the methodology employed in his study is closer to the quantitative approach in that pre- and post-tests of achievement were used. In spite of a dearth of empirical studies in the field of library and information studies that demonstrate an awareness of new methodologies in investigating student learning and the critical issues involved in experiential learning (e.g. the professional socialization of students), the researcher was encouraged to locate one paper on education for library and information science that referred to the advances in student learning (e.g. the findings about deep and surface learning of, *inter alia*, Marton and Säljö (1976) and that also urged researchers in library and education research to adopt qualitative methodologies (Ford, 1983).

In the South African context, the researcher noted two research investigations that can be characterized as studies that rely heavily on the hermeneutic tradition of research.

They are both prominent studies, with a strong scientific base, that have received, and continue to receive, a great deal of attention, viz. Lor (1978) and UNISA. Department of Library and Information Science (1988). The latter study is noteworthy for it relies on purposive sampling and qualitative analysis of interviews, written submissions and other documents (1988 : 8-9).

4.17 Focal questions of this investigation

The central foci of the empirical study are the activities of the programme and the behaviour of the students in the programme. Although the researcher has disavowed any intention of quantifying in behavioural terms the effects and impact of the programme, a causal question is implied in a great deal of the empirical investigation because the researcher has attempted to make plausible inferences such as :

- Does the programme lead to the desired effects ?
- What is the relationship between the programme activities and the observed effects ?
- Do the processes and activities of the programme cause or affect the behaviour, attitudes, skills and knowledge of the participants ?

An attempt has been made in this study to describe what the students do and to establish how they experience the programme and what their attitudes are to it. Therefore units of activity have had to be considered, relationships uncovered, effects assessed, degree of congruency between objectives and

outcomes evaluated, and perceived effectiveness and relevance investigated. One of the purposes has been to gain an understanding of what Goodlad *et al* have described so nicely as "the experienced curriculum" which does not always coincide with the taught or formal curriculum (1979 : 64).

4.17.1 Students' attitudes to fieldwork

A major thrust of the research design of this study has been a survey of students participating in the fieldwork programmes to establish their attitudes to and assessment of the programme. Their experiences of the programme are deemed important from a constructivist point of view, as discussed in Section 4.8.2.

It has been shown in recent years that student evaluation of the meaningfulness of a course and an assessment of its impact is a legitimate method and a valid criterion for evaluating educational efforts (Nehari & Bender, 1978 : 3). Their finding has been reinforced by research that has shown that students' rating of teaching and course effectiveness tends to be reliable (Hopkins & Stanley, 1981 : 297). Research by Braskamp *et al* has demonstrated that students' written comments on a course can be reliably scored and that these scores agree substantially with responses collected according to items on a questionnaire (1981).

Likewise, in the evaluation of social services, one can measure the level of satisfaction as an important indicator of the programme's success. Rossi, Berk and Eidson found that

client assessment of a service can be a very important source of evaluation of urban services (1974). Campbell warns that if the observations and assessments of participants in a programme are ignored, well-founded and useful information and opinions will be wasted (1978 : 202). He notes that an exception to the neglect of the participant perspective in general are course evaluations which confirm the competence of participants as observers (1978 : 202).

In addition to systematically taking the perspective of the students, the researcher can also view the actions from the perspective of someone outside the group. In the current investigation, the supervising librarians are a source of information and can provide another perspective. In this way the researcher can avoid presenting a one-sided view, can broaden the outlook and can compare differential perspectives (Cf Section 4.18).

A consideration of the outcomes of the programme raises the almost intractable problem of defining criteria of success for the programme. Evaluation involves judgement and implies the application of normative principles or standards. There have, therefore, to be some implicit criteria to guide the evaluation. While accepting the argument of Scriven (1972)(b) and Stake (1976)(a) that evaluating strictly according to objectives results in a premature closure and hence in an incomplete evaluation, it still seems that some values or criteria are necessary to provide a framework of analysis. The argument of Scriven and Stake tends rather towards the

position that one should not limit oneself to stated objectives as the sole criteria. (Cf Section 4.6.1 for a detailed critiques of the objectives-oriented approach to evaluation.)

The problem of what standards to use, and how to derive them, in the assessment of value or quality, is a pervasive one in evaluation research. Professor Ball, the Chairman of the National Advisory Board for Public Sector Higher Education in the U K (NAB) defined quality in higher education quite simply as "fitness for purpose" (Elton, 1986 : 84). The concept of quality rests on no single measure or consideration but is multi-dimensional, and for this reason, a holistic approach to its assessment should be adopted (Conrad & Blackburn, 1986 : 286).

Shulman identifies two major contrasting conceptions of effectiveness commonly employed in evaluation research :

- one conception is predicated on measuring effectiveness as a function of an empirically demonstrable relationship with achievement measures
- the normative conception compares what has happened with a model or conception derived from theory. This criterion uses correspondence with a normative model rather than correlation with an empirical outcome as its test (1986 : 28).

The current study has employed the normative model to consider outcomes. The reason for adopting this criterion is that the

students were exposed to a wide variety of learning situations and did not follow a uniform and standardized programme with identical study elements. It was decided not to attempt to arrive at absolute indicators of success because of the elusiveness of the concept of success (considering the multiple perspectives involved) and of the danger of "fractured measurement" warned against by Etzioni and Lehman (1969 : 47). By this they meant that it is impossible to construct an index that would measure a quality such as a good learning experience. The more complex the activity, the more standards depend on judgment (Williams, 1986 : 34). Conversely, the simpler the activity, the easier it is to identify objective criteria or standards (Williams, 1986 : 34). As it is clear that fieldwork is a complex activity with many different dimensions rendering the identification of absolute criteria and performance indicators virtually impossible, it was decided to look at multiple indicators that are consistent with each other and to include indicators of different dimensions to guard against the dysfunction of fractured measurement.

The criteria used in the assessment of effects of the two programmes studied here have been derived from the conceptual study referred to earlier and from professional standards (SAILIS, 1987). In addition to these formally stated aims and objectives, students were also consulted as to what their criteria and learning objectives were. This is consistent with proposals by eminent evaluation researchers such as Patton (1978), Scriven, (1972)(b) and the Joint Committee

(1981) who all urge that account should be taken of a needs assessment of the participants in a programme.

4.17.2 Implementation process

A study of the implementation process and process variables involves establishing actual programme characteristics in an operational setting. The process variables are the unique internal dynamics of a programme and those factors that are instrumental in producing the results of the programme (Patton, 1980 : 60-62). It is widely recognized by educational researchers that focusing on student outcomes in a programme evaluation is inadequate without considering the processes and situations contributing to these outcomes (Churchman, 1977). The reason that the activities and implementation process of the programmes are studied is to enable the researcher to estimate "treatment integrity", a term used by Sechrest and Redner to describe the faithfulness of the programme activities to the curriculum (1979). As Goodlad notes, gaps may cause a discrepancy between the ideal concept of a programme and its actual execution or between the rationale of a programme and its implementation guidelines (1977). The possible sources of discrepancy are various : the guidelines may be insufficiently detailed or developed to achieve the intended outcomes; or they might be implicit in a general statement of intent. It could also be that they have not been communicated to those responsible for implementing the programme (e.g. supervising librarians) or even rejected by them. Any dissonance has to be uncovered because of the potential effects such variance might have on the

participants, a consideration that has been pointed out by a number of evaluation researchers. Blumer's pertinent comment about the relationship between the rationale and conception of the programme and its transformation during its empirical implementation is representative of this concern :

Invariably, to some degree, the plan as put into practice is modified, twisted and reshaped, and takes on unforeseen accretions (1971 : 304-305).

The evaluation of process variables is very valuable in describing the working, procedures and design of a programme and also very useful in providing contextual information that assists in the interpretation of the outcomes of the programme. The evaluator attempts to identify those factors, conditions or activities that lead to satisfactory outcomes or conversely that impede the achievement of the aims of the programme. Provus recognizes the importance of framing questions in terms of programme implementation. He argues that evaluations have to begin by establishing the degree of congruence between the programme design and its implementation. He calls this the Discrepancy Model (1971 : 12). Rossi and Wright point out that a programme may fail or be defective because of non-implementation of the interventions rather than ineffectiveness of the programmed activities (1977). Rossi identifies a potential source of difficulty in programme implementation as minimal delivery or ritual compliance (1978 : 581).

Based on these considerations, it was reasoned by the researcher that a monitoring of the implementation of the programmes under scrutiny in this study will reveal any incongruities or discrepancies as a means of assisting the researcher to modify the programme or the programme activities in such a way as to achieve a closer congruence between intention and desired outcomes. The differences and variations at the different sites revealed by a study of the implementation variables may provide clues as to why the programme in some sites is more effective than in others.

4.17.3 Analysis of aims, goals and rationale

Suchman has identified two reasons for a programme's failure (1969). Either the programme fails to implement the causal process that would lead to the intended goals, or the theory is faulty and the (presumed) causal variable does not lead to the desired goal (1969 : 16). It is therefore necessary to establish from the programme planners what their "theory of action" is (Patton, 1978 : 182). In other words there must be a rationale and superordinate aims linked to the goals and objectives of the programme and the planners must have conceptualized cause and effect relationships between activities and desired outcomes. It is recognized that intentions are not always precise and explicit and that they might be susceptible to differing interpretations. In this regard Eraut observes :

There are many situations when intentions are conceived primarily in terms of participation, motivation and involvement; and it is assumed that beneficial outcomes will naturally follow (1984 : 28).

In Stake's countenance model of evaluation it is proposed that the evaluator should evaluate a programme both empirically and logically (1967 : 533). Logical contingency requires an assessment of whether the intentions of the programme are logically coherent with transactions (i.e. learning activities). This requires a philosophical or theoretical inquiry into the rationale of the programme (Cf Section 4.14 for a discussion of the relevance of Stake's evaluation model). Scriven uses the term "intrinsic evaluation" to denote the evaluation of the structure and design of the programme. The empirical evaluation is based on empirical evidence regarding the functioning of the programme (1967 : 533).

Drawing on these considerations, the researcher will evaluate the theory of action underpinning the programmes selected for study and in so doing will be able to identify conceptual gaps (if any) by relating the "intrinsic evaluation" to the empirical evaluation.

4.17.4 Process model

In terms of Stake's model (1967) one can formulate a process model in the following way : if, given certain antecedents, there are certain transactions, then certain outcomes will follow. This analysis is useful in the present study as it

suggests certain analytical procedures that will further the inquiry by providing a framework of investigation and interpretation. To apply the concept to fieldwork in library and information science, a tentative process model proposed by the researcher might assume the following form :

Given certain antecedent conditions such as knowledge and skills already acquired by the student, briefing of the student and supervising librarians, with certain transactions such as planned activities in a favourable environment, then favourable outcomes of cognitive learning, acquisition of skills and attitudinal change will follow.

Such an analysis makes explicit what might be an implicit process model of education, i.e. a concept of the relationship between various factors (such as programme, teacher, methods, students) and an outcome (such as attitude, skill etc.). The evaluator will attempt to identify a process model (ideas of what works in what settings) so that the programme can be designed on a more systematic base than mere guesswork.

4.18 Data collection procedures used

These focal questions and orienting issues (suggested by eminent evaluation theorists and flowing from the conceptual framework) indicated to the researcher the categories of information to be gathered and a consideration of the most suitable methods of gathering this information for this study. (Cf Homans's concept of "orienting statements" which tell us "what we ought to look into further or how we ought to look at it" (1967 : 17).)

From the preceding discussion of requirements of sound data collection procedures, it can be seen that data collection and data analysis are closely related. While appreciating this close link, the researcher has discussed the methodological issues involved in data analysis in a separate section for greater clarity (cf Section 4.21.)

The following sources provided the information sought for application to this study:

Information from the library schools

- rationale underlying proposed goals and objectives
- statement of objectives
- regulations governing fieldwork requirements
- briefing documents
- assessment forms

The information was gathered from documents and by interviewing lecturers in order to determine their opinions on the topic.

Other professional sources

- educational standards (e.g. *SAILIS Standards for education for library and information science*, 1987)
- professional literature
- expert professional opinion

Information from host libraries

- examination of any accompanying documentation (e.g. instructions to students, instructions to supervising librarians, briefing documents)
- questionnaires sent to supervising librarians for their opinions and aims

Information regarding activities during the programme

- examination of timetables and schedules of activities
- examination of students' diaries or reports noting their activities
- examination of reports by host libraries detailing activities and tasks performed
- examination of any work sheets or instructional materials supplied by the libraries

Investigation of students' response to the experience

- questionnaires
- interviews

4.18.1 Questionnaire design

Because the researcher had planned to do cross-site comparison, the need arose for standardization of some of the instruments so that findings could be compared. Common data collection procedures are necessary to ensure that cross-site similarities or differences are features of the particular cases and not the result of measurement procedures or research bias (Pelto & Pelto, 1978). The tradition of qualitative

research design allows for both survey instruments and for unstructured interviews and utilization of records, documents and other information that is, of necessity, non-standardized. In fact, the *Evaluation Standards* referred to earlier (cf Section 4.14) calls for the evaluator to be situationally flexible and adaptable.

The researcher designed three questionnaires : two for administration to students (though the first has been characterized as a report rather than a questionnaire), and one which was sent to supervising librarians.

The student questionnaires are the key to the principal research questions and are, as such, also keyed to the interview schedule (administered to the students) which is aimed at greater depth, detail and exploration of questions included in the questionnaire.

The first questionnaire was designed to collect factual information from students regarding each placement (administrative details, profile of activities etc.) and the other to establish opinions, attitudes, effects and subjective evaluation of the experience. The first questionnaire (i.e. the report) was completed by the students after each fieldwork placement. This questionnaire provided information of a diary or log type. This instrument, in addition to gathering important factual information that would complement the later questionnaire and interviews, also enabled the researcher to generate further questions for the second type of

questionnaire, viz. the one designed to establish perspectives, attitudes, opinions, expectations, assessment, etc. regarding the fieldwork programme.

Characteristics such as age and gender were not considered relevant because the sample was not random and participation in the fieldwork programme not voluntary. Therefore a study of such variables was considered unwarranted and unproductive because they are conditions over which the programme planners have no influence.

In addition to discerning valence of attitudes, the second questionnaire sought opinions, expectations and assessments of the programme, as did the interviews. Backstrom and Hursh-César explain and distinguish between opinion and attitude :

Opinion and attitude questions deal with feelings, beliefs, ideas, predispositions, and values related to the topic under study. ... opinion is focused and expressed. Questions about *opinions* try to learn what people think or feel at a particular point in time about a particular subject. Their thoughts and feelings are, however, the fruits of an underlying, deeply ingrained attitude system. Questions about *attitudes*, then, tap the respondent's basic personality orientation acquired through years of experience (1981 : 125).

The orientation of this interpretive approach towards gaining access to the students' subjective interpretation of an experience does not mean that the researcher is bound to accept those meanings uncritically as representing the

definitive "reality" of the situation (cf Section 4.17.1). Sharp and Green comment on the need to discriminate between perspectives :

The observer must make a distinction between the meaning of the situation as it appears to the actor, and the meaning of the situation to the observer, and the distinction will be in terms of the conceptual framework that the latter employs to render the situation comprehensible (1975 : 26).

For this reason, the researcher deemed it necessary to include the lecturers and supervisors in the study : to establish their perspective and opinions. Therefore lecturers were interviewed and questionnaires sent to host institutions (Cf discussion of the strategy of triangulation in Section 4.13).

The questionnaires (i.e. the three types mentioned and the interview schedules which can be classified generically as questionnaires) were designed following the principles of social survey research. A number of considerations were of particular relevance to this study.

A pilot study, conducted in 1984, with a class of library and information science students gave guidance as to the sort of information required and highlighted problems to be explored. This was done as a critical aspect of questionnaire design is to determine what it is that the researcher is trying to establish and how to elicit this information, in other words how to relate the questionnaire to the problem being investigated.

The researcher also made considerable use of the literature of social surveys for practical guidance in the design of questionnaires and interview schedules. It was realized that the best way of minimizing data collection problems was to recognize and anticipate them and to build in features in the research design that would counter them.

A review of salient contributions to the literature of social surveys suggested the following principles to be incorporated in the design of the questionnaires. The principles can be classified as relating to coverage of questionnaire (1), types of question (2-8), wording of questions (9-13), question sequence (14-15), and format and physical layout (16-19):

- 1 are major issues covered ?
- 2 make use of open and closed questions
- 3 use of closed questions : are categories exhaustive, mutually exclusive ?
- 4 avoid double questions
- 5 ask questions that the respondents can answer
- 6 avoid leading questions
- 7 avoid response set answers by making negative statements
- 8 make use of filter questions when appropriate
- 9 are questions precisely worded ?
- 10 provide clear definitions
- 11 avoid jargon
- 12 avoid ambiguity
- 13 avoid vagueness

- 14 attempt logical and efficient sequencing of questions, e.g. from the general to the specific
- 15 take care that later responses are not biased by earlier questions
- 16 give clear instructions
- 17 design should be clear and layout attractive
- 18 questionnaire should be legible
- 19 provide sufficient space for written answers
(Babbie, 1973; Bailey, 1978; Blalock, 1970; Moser & Kalton, 1972; Oppenheim, 1973; Tauber & Stephens, 1967).

It was realized that there would be no definitive use in aiming at a single undifferentiated score for the students' attitude towards the programme because such a rating would not have the power to discriminate between the different dimensions and components of the learning experience. (Cf Section 4.17.1 for arguments regarding the indicators of quality or value in a learning situation.) The various dimensions of the fieldwork programmes being analysed in the student questionnaires and interviews were derived from a logical analysis of the literature of fieldwork, experiential learning and from learning theory. These dimensions are :

- value of learning : knowledge, skills and affects
- interest
- workload and difficulty
- interaction with supervisor
- organization of the programme
- clarity of the objectives and goals

- feedback
- assessment

The items representing these dimensions have been derived from a pool of items generated from the following sources :

- a survey of literature on fieldwork
- a survey of literature on the means of testing the effectiveness of teaching programmes
- a survey of available instruments that have been used in evaluating higher education programmes (e.g Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Feldman, 1977; Marsh, 1980; Pastoll, 1980; University of Michigan, 1976)

4.18.2 Design of the interview schedules

The interview, a very flexible means of establishing attitude, was also selected as a suitable means of collecting information (from both students and lecturers) because of the advantages it offers :

- high response rate
- flexibility
- it allows for an estimation of intensity of response
- suitability for probing complex issues (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1978 : 26-27).

Lincoln and Guba are also proponents of the efficacy of the interview in qualitative research. The purposes of conducting an interview include, according to their view :

- obtaining here-and-now constructions of persons, events, activities, opinions etc.
- reconstructions of these entities as they happened in the past
- projections of such entities as they are expected to be experienced in the future
- verification, correction and extension of information obtained from other sources (triangulation)
- verification, emendation and extension of constructions developed by the researcher (1985 : 268).

Spradley's simpler typology of the interview reveals the kind of data that an interview can elicit. His three categories (in conjunction with those of Lincoln and Guba) were found to be valuable guides in the construction of the interview schedules :

- descriptive questions intended to elicit the respondent's depiction of some aspect of the programme
- structural questions designed to generate or substantiate the constructs that respondents use to depict the programme
- contrast questions designed to elicit meanings that the respondents attach to and the relationship they perceive among the constructs (1979).

The disadvantages of the interview are that it is time-consuming and that the interview situation might influence the respondent - but there are measures that the interviewer can take to eliminate or reduce bias (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1978 : 27; 92-101). The mere fact that there is only one interviewer reduces the effect of varying interviewer bias.

The interview schedule designed for the current investigation can be characterized according to the typology proposed by Goetz and LeCompte as a nonscheduled standardized interview (1984 : 119). The same questions and probes are used for each respondent (as in a scheduled standardized interview) but the order and variations can be changed according to the response(s). In this way results can still be readily enumerated but the interviewer has the flexibility to be responsive (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 119).

An interview schedule was designed to supplement, check and probe more deeply information and opinions gathered from students by means of the two questionnaires. A semi-structured schedule was devised with some questions common to all interviews and particular questions peculiar to some interviews as the circumstances required. Some responses in questionnaires raised issues that had not been initially specifically addressed by the researcher and the interview provided the vehicle for this follow-up. In addition, the interview follow-up is a valuable means of checking validity of response (Eraut, 1984 : 33). Questions were asked in the

interview in order to clarify apparent inconsistencies or obscure responses and also to probe more deeply aspects that either presented as critical incidents or for insights that might be gained from exploration of an issue. The device used in an interview to probe a response more deeply is known as a probe. It leads the respondent to answer more fully or clearly and also to structure the respondent's answers so that all topics of interest are covered and that the amount of irrelevant information is reduced. Specific probes may be attached to each question or may be used as contingency questions, that is in response to an earlier response that demanded particular explication or elaboration (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1978 : 26-27).

The library school lecturers were interviewed according to an interview schedule designed to establish educational objectives and attitudes and expectations of the educators regarding the pedagogy of fieldwork. The opinions and attitudes thus gauged supplement the formally stated goals and objectives in the professional literature, educational theory, university handbooks, official statements and educational standards. In this manner a full range of not only formal goals but also implicit goals and expected outcomes is gathered. These views were gathered so that a comparison might be made between the official pedagogical view of fieldwork and the students' actual experience in order to establish the congruency or otherwise of objectives, expectations, needs and actual experience. This aspect of the investigation is an important dimension in qualitative

evaluation research which seeks to identify unintended as well as anticipated outcomes and to consider any dissonance between stated goals and actual outcomes. Goals are an important measure in evaluation research, but the impact of the programme can better be assessed by identifying, in addition, other outcomes as well as factors that make up the process.

The researcher attempted to design instruments to achieve maximum validity and reliability (Cf Section 4.13 for a discussion of these methodological issues.) Reliability is defined by Slavin as the degree to which a measure is consistent in producing the same readings when measuring the same things (1984 : 136). For example, a questionnaire should have measures that will point out differences that exist and show the same scores for individuals who feature as the same respondents consistently (e.g the same individual on two or more separate occasions).

Sampling is an important aspect of reliability. A solution to the problem of sampling is to survey the entire field (Kurz, 1983 : 94), as in a bounded population. (The sampling methods have been extensively discussed in Section 4.16.)

A measure's validity refers to the degree to which it actually measures the concept it is supposed to measure (Oppenheim, 1966 : 70). There are various threats to validity that have to be guarded against. One pitfall is that the presence of the observer might affect the response of the subjects. In

order to circumvent this, the researcher repeated questions and probed initial responses more deeply.

Dale suggests that an attitude questionnaire can be transformed into a sensitive measuring instrument yielding qualitative data and providing the opportunity for checking validity by requesting the respondents to comment or give reasons for their answer in a space left below the item (1976 : 128). This technique is consistent with the case study design and has been extensively employed in the questionnaire used in this investigation.

Another threat to validity is observer bias : the observer approaches the study with preconceptions. The participants might also bring bias to the study. Triangulation and different methods of collection of data were employed in this investigation to guard against subject bias. (Cf Section 4.13 for an explication of the strategy of triangulation.)

A number of higher education institutions have invested a great deal in the development of teaching and programme evaluation instruments. The University of Michigan is prominent among these. Likert-type scales are the most widely used to solicit student evaluation of teaching (Levine & Wright, 1987 : 87). The similarity of the dimensions measured in the instruments examined and the instrument designed for this investigation supports construct validity. (Cf Section 4.18.1 for a list of evaluation instruments that guided the

researcher in the construction of her questionnaires and interview schedules.)

4.19 Validation of the evaluation inquiry

Reference has been made to a variety of measures suggested by evaluation researchers and others to ensure validity, reliability and generalizability (Cf Section 4.13 for definitions of these concepts as applied to this research design). The researcher incorporated methodological checks into the study as a counter to potential limitations and problems associated with the qualitative approach and the case study in particular, and research designs in general. To this end, the methods described and discussed in Section 4.13 were employed in the course of this investigation, viz. triangulation, efforts to reduce distortion and bias, and attempts to maximize the transferability (or generalizability) of the study.

Lincoln and Guba suggest that transferability (their analogue in naturalistic inquiry for external validity of conventional inquiry) can be enhanced by the provision of "thick description" so that the reader interested in assessing the transferability of the findings to other contexts can judge this according to the degree of correspondence between the "sending" and the "receiving" contexts (1985 : 316). Patton argues that purposive sampling is a means of enhancing transferability (1980). Lincoln and Guba conclude that it is not the task of the evaluator to provide an index of transferability but that it is his or her responsibility to

provide the data base that makes the judgment of transferability possible (1985 : 316). External validity depends on the identification and description of characteristics of phenomena, salient for comparison with other, familiar types (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 229). Internal validity was strengthened in this inquiry by the use of tape recordings and complete transcripts of every interview. This ensures the fidelity of the data and the recording permits completeness of analysis because of unlimited opportunity for replaying (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 229; Erickson, 1986 : 144).

The researcher has kept and archived all of these items both as a means of satisfying the requirements of an audit and also because, as suggested by Lincoln and Guba, the process has lent system and enhanced possibilities for cross-referencing (1985 : 319). (Cf Section 4.13 .) This method also meets the criteria of a disciplined inquiry. Cronbach and Suppes argue that the aspect that most prominently distinguishes disciplined inquiry from other forms is that it is conducted and reported in such a way that all aspects are open to public scrutiny (1969 : 16). (Cf Section 4.13 for their definition of a disciplined inquiry.)

4.20 Data analysis

In this section the author will attempt a general exposition of methodological issues regarding analysis and analytical procedures according to the canons of qualitative research, in general, and case study research in particular. Integrated in this discussion will be a report of the ways in which these principles and procedures were applied and adapted to the current investigation. The emphasis in this section is on qualitative methodological approaches to analysis because of the research design employed in this study which has relied heavily on qualitative data. These procedures warrant description and discussion because they are not as well documented as the the standard quantitative methods (which, in this context do not warrant extensive explication) and because of the peculiar problems that they present to researchers whose studies are located in this tradition. However, since the investigation attempted to combine both quantitative and qualitative methods, reference is also made to standard methods of analysis in the assessment of attitudes, for example. The reason for including the discussion in this chapter (and not, for example in the analytical chapters) is that analysis of data is viewed as a methodological issue, closely associated with the research design and such elements as data collection which are described in this chapter. Moreover, this structural arrangement would obviate the need to repeat the discussion of procedures in the analysis of each of the two cases which are analysed separately.

In the investigation each case was regarded as a single analytic unit and cross-case comparisons were made between the two cases. According to Yin, the case study researcher must construct an adequate explanation for the first case and then know what modification of the explanation might have to be made for its application for the second case (1981(a) : 62-63). In the current investigation, Case A was treated as the main case and Case B provided the basis for comparison. (The reasons for the selection of each case has been discussed in Section 4.16, and the reason for the selection of Case A as the main case has been referred to in the same section.

Analysis of data has proceeded according to the research design and predicated on the assumptions underlying the selected methodologies. These approaches have implications for data collection (as already discussed) and for theory-building.

4.21 Different approaches to theorizing

The great philosopher Kaplan, in a widely cited and seminal work on inquiry methods (1964), postulated two methods of explanation, each valid and capable of universal application :

- the deductive model widely employed in the "scientific method", where a reason is deduced from known facts
- the pattern model whereby we know the reason for something when it fits into a known pattern (1964 : 347).

In the pattern model, typically adopted in qualitative research, instead of relying on the traditional null hypothesis test of a statistical kind, one tries to discern a pattern which could be recognized as the "scientific explanation" of that situation which could be transferred to other situations (Magoon, 1977 : 661).

Reason has also distinguished between the deductive methods of theory confirmation typical of the positivist approach, and the pattern model of explanation that is comparable to Glaser and Strauss's grounded theory that is the exemplar of qualitative research. (Cf Section 4.24 for a discussion of their important contribution). Reason comments on the distinction :

This pattern model [of explanation] is quite different from the more deductive model of explanation which is used by experimentalists. First, the deductive model involves general laws which explain some phenomenon, while the pattern model involves a number of phenomena all of equal importance, then explains the connections between them. Second, the deduction of unknown parts from known parts is not possible in the pattern model. Indeed, prediction is not important in the pattern model; explanation lies in demonstrating the connections of a puzzling item with other items and the whole pattern. Third, the pattern is rarely ever finished, and finally, the pattern is subject to change in the course of its development as new data become available (1981 : 186).

(Cf discussion in Sections 4.6 *et seq* of the different approaches to theory building associated with the different research approaches.)

4.22 Analysis of survey data

Conventional analytical techniques were used in the scoring of responses in those sections of the student questionnaire that warranted it, viz. the closed-category questions which incorporated pre-determined categories. In this way, it was possible to compute frequency scores, distribution patterns could be considered, the valence and strength of attitudes could be determined and a conclusion could be drawn about the tendency towards positive or negative attitudes. Simple descriptive statistics were employed in those areas of the questionnaire that required it.

4.23 Analysis of qualitative data

The contributions of a number of leading researchers to the methodology of data analysis and theory construction in qualitative research that have been found useful for this study need to be discussed here briefly.

The discussion moves from general concerns of theory generation in qualitative research to more specific analytical procedures and processes that are constitutive elements of theory-building. From this it will be seen that while there is no strictly formulaic or mechanical procedure available, the methods are based on formal, systematic and logical procedures which are used to process and reduce data so as to generate constructs and discern patterns among them (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984 : 167).

A number of methodologists have made attempts to explicate the logic of analysing of qualitative data which is different from the underlying procedures used in quantitative research where concepts and categories are predetermined and defined operationally. (Cf Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Holsti, 1969; Lazarsfeld, 1972; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Znaniecki, 1934). The major difficulty resides in the process of the generation and classification of concepts, categories and constructs from the data. These terms are used more or less interchangeably in the literature, although the term "theoretical construct" is more abstract and more removed from directly observable empirical data. An example of a theoretical construct, according to Bulmer, is "government" whose meaning cannot be derived merely from the direct observation of individual acts (1984 : 246). Glaser and Strauss refer to the term "category" as an equivalent to the term "concept" (1967).

Most qualitative methodologists agree that there is a strong interdependence between the concepts and the empirical data and that theory construction results from an interplay between the two (Bulmer, 1984 : 245). Collection, coding and analysis occur jointly in such a way that the newly collected data inform the emerging theory which in turn guides further data collection, a process referred to by Glaser and Strauss as "theoretical sampling" :

Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is *controlled* (original emphasis) by the emerging theory, whether substantive or formal. The initial decisions for theoretical collection of data are based only on a general sociological perspective and on a general subject or problem area (... such as what happens to students in medical school that turns them into doctors). The initial decisions are not based on a preconceived theoretical framework (1967 : 45).

Lazarsfeld makes a general observation about the difficulty embedded in this process :

The job of finding out what theoretical categories are applicable to the given field of behaviour will be a long one, and will involve switching back and forth between concrete categories closely adapted to the data themselves, and general categories able to tie in with other fields of experience, until both concrete applicability and generality are obtained (1972 : 226)

His comments on the difficulty of the procedure reflect two aspects that are important in the process : viz. the concreteness of the data and the necessity of abstracting from the empirical data features that are essential and then generalizing them into concepts (Bulmer, 1984 : 250).

4.24 Grounded theory

Pre-eminent among the influential qualitative analytical methodologies is the "grounded theory" approach of Glaser and Strauss (1967) which is predicated on inductive strategies which are different from theory construction (and testing) in other social science methodologies that emphasize logical deduction from a priori assumptions (Patton, 1980 : 80).

In their seminal work in which they outline the methodology of theory construction in qualitative research, which they term "grounded theory", Glaser and Strauss also compare the two modes of generating theory :

In contrasting grounded theory with logico-deductive theory and discussing and assessing their relative merits in ability to fit and work (predict, explain and be relevant), we have taken the position that the adequacy of a theory for sociology today cannot be divorced from the process by which it is generated. Thus one canon for judging the usefulness of a theory is how it was generated - and we suggest that it is likely to be a better theory to the degree that it has been inductively developed from social research ... Generating a theory from data means that most hypotheses and concepts not only come from the data, but are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of research. Generating a theory involves a process of research (1967 : 5-6).

They suggest the use of the constant comparison method to generate categories (1967 : 106). This is a productive method because, as they point out, it soon starts to generate theoretical properties of the category because the researcher is forced to think about dimensions of the category, conditions under which it is pronounced or minimized, its

consequences and its relationship to other categories and its other properties (1967 : 106). The process of defining properties of the category enables the researcher to define rules about categories and also to integrate categories as relationships become more coherent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 342).

While their approach was found productive in the current study in handling the qualitative data, its tenets were not strictly followed as the researcher did not commence the investigation without a theoretical or conceptual framework - a condition which, according to Glaser and Strauss, would allow the concepts and theory to emerge from the data without the restriction of prior conceptualization, thereby sometimes forcing data to fit the concepts and, in so doing, contaminating the findings (1967 : 49). The researcher was guided in the investigation by a theoretical rationale in that the collection and analysis of data was dependent on a theoretical framework which had a heuristic function rather than one which generated hypotheses that had to be tested. Nonetheless, theory development in this study was also dependent on the emergence of concepts and constructs which were "grounded" in the data. (Cf Section 4.28.2 for a more detailed description of the process of concept formulation or construction of categories.)

Interestingly, although their seminal work on grounded theory has entered the canon of literature of qualitative methodology, they saw no fundamental clash between

quantitative and qualitative data and believed that in many cases both types were needed for the generation and verification of theory (1967 : 17-18). They identified the source of what clash there is as revolving about attempts by different researchers to establish the primacy of emphasis on either generation or verification of theory (1967 : 17).

4.25 Inductive analysis

The researcher identified the method of inductive analysis as being a useful one in the analysis of the qualitative data. This is a method associated with grounded theory in that it is the inverse of the deductive analytical mode which is the primary mode of some forms of quantitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 202). The first major systematic exposition of the method of analytic deduction was made by Znaniecki (1934). It is a process rather akin to the methods employed in grounded theory, and has been defined by Manning as a non-experimental qualitative method that derives causal generalizations by means of detailed examination of cases (1982 (a) : 280). While recommending its viability and advantages in circumstances that warrant it, he acknowledges that it does not have powerful predictive qualities and does not definitively establish causality and universal statements (1982(a) : 294). "Analytic induction seeks to develop universal statements containing the essential features of a phenomenon" which are found by examining a few cases in which the researcher wants to capture the participants' perspective (Manning, 1982 (a) : 277; 230).

Becker, the sociologist noted for his important studies of medical students, and tertiary education (Becker et al, 1961; Becker et al, 1968) describes his use of analytic induction in his case studies (Becker, 1979 : 312; 323). (Cf references to his work which have been found relevant in other sections, viz: Sections 2.4.5.4 (professional socialization) and 4.8.2 (educational ethnography and the student perspective.))

4.26 Pattern matching

Another eminent case study methodologist, Yin, has done a great deal to develop the analytic process of "pattern matching" which is particularly suited to case study research (1982(a)). He compares this approach, which involves the pattern matching of events or phenomena both within and across cases, to the use of templates in biology (1982(a) : 95). He argues, and has demonstrated by his own studies, that this analytic method can achieve an acceptable level of rigour even though statistical procedures are not employed (1982(a) : 95). He explains the potency of the procedure :

If the facts of the case are to found to match closely the pattern of facts predicted by one theory but not by another, and if this observation is found for even a small number of cases, the results may be regarded as compelling evidence for a particularly explanatory model (1982(a) : 96).

Campbell acknowledges the theory-generating capacity of the case study which proceeds by way of pattern-matching (i.e. matching conceptually related characteristics and the testing of multiple implications of a theoretical position (1979 :

57). In his method, formal theory becomes one "pattern" against which various sets of data are matched : the theory provides one pattern, and the data provide the other. As they act upon each other, the theory becomes modified. Campbell proposes this method in case study research as an analogue of hypothesis-testing (1979 : 67). (Cf his defence of the case study discussed in Section 4.13, following his earlier criticism of it referred to in Section 4.11.)

4.27 Content analysis

The method of content analysis, closely associated with analytic induction and grounded theory, was used to process the open-ended questions, the interviews and other documents and records. Berelson's definition of content analysis is still regarded as authoritative :

Content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (1952 : 18).

Holsti's definition of content analysis, while not significantly expanding Berelson's, is serviceable in that it introduces the concept of inference, an important analytical tool in the process :

Content analysis is any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages (1969 : 14).

Rosengren emphasizes that the method is objective and systematic in that it is based on explicitly formulated rules

and procedures (1981 : 34) and Holsti insists that consistently applied rules be applied (1969 : 3).

4.27.1 Unitizing

Lincoln and Guba offer specific and concrete advice on the steps to be followed in processing and analysing qualitative data, incorporating the various approaches of grounded theory, analytic induction and content analysis which are all related. They identify two subprocesses in content analysis, viz. unitizing and categorizing (1985 : 203). Their definition of these two activities is helpful in a field where explicit and concrete advice is less abundant than in conventional methodologies :

Unitizing is a process of coding whereby raw data are systematically transformed and aggregated into units which permit precise description of relevant content characteristics (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 203).

Krippendorff suggests that unitizing "involves defining [information bearing] units, separating them along their boundaries, and identifying them for subsequent analysis" (1980 : 57). A unit, according to Lincoln and Guba should have two characteristics : it should be heuristic, or guide the researcher to some understanding; and it should be the smallest piece of information that can stand by itself and make sense (1985 : 345).

4.27.2 Categorizing

Categorizing is a process whereby the unitized data are organized into categories that provide descriptive or inferential information about the context or setting from which the units were derived (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 : 203). Categories are developed according to rules formulated for the purpose by the researcher.

Holsti outlines general canons of good category construction in content analysis. Categories should :

- reflect purpose of research
- include conceptual definitions
- be exhaustive
- be mutually exclusive
- be independent
- be derived from a single classification scheme (Holsti, 1969 : 94-100).

Bogdan and Biklen are also a source of guidance in the establishment of useful coding categories (i.e. the classification of unitized information into categories or concepts). They provide the following codes :

- setting context : general information on the sites
- definition of situation : how people define the situation
- perspectives : ways of thinking
- process : sequence flow
- activities : regularly occurring kinds of behaviour
- events : specific activities

- strategies : ways of accomplishing things
- relationship and social structure : unofficially defined patterns (1982 : 134).

4.28 Analytical procedures followed in this study

The approaches suggested by qualitative methodologists in the preceding sections were used as a guide by the researcher. Some of the methods described in the preceding sections were adapted and applied where relevant because a tightly controlled and systematic approach to data analysis was deemed necessary in order to counter the criticisms of subjectivity and consequent loss of objectivity sometimes made of the case study and other qualitative research methodologies.

The survey and enumerative data collected by means of the questionnaires, were supplemented by qualitative data (both from the open-ended questions on the questionnaires and from the interviews), the analysis of which considerably facilitated interpretation and shed light on sometimes contradictory and ambiguous responses. The explanatory power of the questionnaires was considerably enhanced by the introduction of open-ended responses and the opportunity for intensive interviews.

Before content analysis of the interviews could take place, the researcher made a verbatim transcript of the interviews that had been taped. The data were sifted a number of times so that concepts (i.e. abstract ideas) could be developed and generalized from the empirical evidence (Taylor & Bogdan,

1984 : 133) and from the preceding conceptual analysis so that the categories and concepts developed emerged from an interaction of theory and data. By studying the data for recurring regularities that could be sorted into patterns, the researcher was able to identify concepts and linkages between them which formed into themes (Guba, 1978 : 53). By constructing typologies (classifying situations, people and phenomena) the researcher was able to generalize (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984 : 134). The researcher listed themes, concepts, interpretations, typologies and propositions - as well as rules for their identification.

In this investigation, the researcher used these guidelines in the analysis of the qualitative data and the subsequent theory development. The development of concepts or categories from the empirical data drew on Bulmer's analysis of the process of concept formulation :

- "Objective facticity", i.e. phenomena so real that the researcher cannot ignore them. Bulmer quotes "race" and "religion" as two examples.
- Professional definitions of "objective facticity" provided guidance, e.g., in this study, learning outcomes, motivation, reflection (drawn from educational theory), professional values, practice, theory (drawn from library and information science)
- Literature from other disciplines germane to the study, particularly where there has been significant prior research, e.g., in this study, professional

socialization, strategic adaptation, perspective, situational definition (drawn from sociology)

- Respondents' own definitions and constructs, e.g. in this study the researcher was able to make good use of the way in which students conceptualized the domains of effective supervision, e.g. guidance, approachability, allowing students space (Bulmer, 1984 : 258).

(Cf the conceptual analysis in Chapter 2 and 3 from which some of the concepts were developed.)

Although the definitions and guidelines discussed above proved useful there were many attendant difficulties in generating constructs. One difficulty was that associated with working with words which have many connotations and contextual boundaries. Also the great volume of data was a source of difficulty in the reduction and analysis of data. The data had to be sifted and analysed more than once in order to focus issues and refine categories. Management of qualitative data proceeded by means of coding.

Another difficulty in the analysis of qualitative data was that decisions had to be made about saliency of a construct. How can the researcher determine if a factor is salient ? What referents are relevant? In this study, a decision was made that the category or construct should appear frequently and that the participants should attach significance to it. In other cases, the theoretical perspective lent significance

to the construct, or saliency depended also on theoretical relationships uncovered in other constructs.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF CASE A

5.1 Conduct of the inquiry

Case A has been selected as the main case for the reasons outlined in Section 4.16. A description of the methods of data collection and motivation for their use have been dealt with in Section 4.18. The investigation was carried out *in situ* in 1987. After each session of fieldwork each student was asked to write a report detailing name of host institution, length of placement, and a breakdown of activities and tasks assigned. (This factual report is attached as Appendix 1) The second questionnaire was distributed to all students who had completed three weeks of fieldwork by the end of the first semester. The cohort of students who participated in the investigation were Higher Diploma students, 3rd-year B Bibl students and 4th-year B Bibl students. (The questionnaire is attached as Appendix 2.)

The criterion of inclusion was that each student had to have carried out a minimum of three weeks' fieldwork - which is the requirement laid down by the library school for Higher Diploma students who form the major proportion of the class. B Bibl students are required to do three weeks' fieldwork in their third year and three weeks in their fourth year, at the same times as the Higher Diploma students. Students who had been exempted from part of the fieldwork (on the grounds of having had considerable precourse experience in a library or information centre) were excluded as were part-time students

who had not completed the minimum requirement. Of the 45 eligible respondents, 42 students returned the second questionnaire, constituting a response rate of 93,3%. (Forty-three students completed the factual report, but only forty-two reports were used as one of these students had failed to complete the questionnaire, which was crucial to the investigation.) Interviews were conducted with 40 students, constituting a response rate of 88,9%. (The interview schedule is attached as Appendix 3.) The questionnaires took on average an hour per student to complete, while the interviews lasted on average from 45 minutes to an hour.

Five members of staff were interviewed according to the interview schedule designed for this purpose. The respondents included the head of department and the co-ordinator of fieldwork in the library school. (This schedule is attached as Appendix 4.)

5.2 Description of the programme

All Higher Diploma students are required to complete three weeks' fieldwork in an approved host institution in order to qualify for the diploma. As briefly noted in the preceding section, B Bibl students are required to do a total of six weeks in an approved host institution, spread over two years : three weeks in their 3rd year and three weeks in their 4th year. The reason for the different arrangements for the B Bibl and Higher Diploma students is that the former are engaged in professional studies over two years, while the latter complete their studies in one year. One member of

staff is appointed to act as fieldwork co-ordinator and liaison with host institutions.

5.3 Assessment of students' performance

Students are graded on a pass/fail basis according to the assessment of the host institutions. Host institutions are supplied with an assessment form according to which they are asked to assess the student's performance. (The assessment form is attached as Appendix 5.) The report is confidential and its content not divulged to the student. However, useful points or observations are conveyed to the student when considered necessary.

5.4 Communication

5.4.1 Student briefing

Students are addressed at the beginning of the year by the fieldwork co-ordinator who explains to them the purpose of the fieldwork programme and outlines the administrative arrangements. Students are invited to choose the type of library/information centre that they would like to spend time at and are advised in their selection of placements. A guidelines document is issued to the students advising them on matters such as punctuality, etiquette and attitude. It also provides guidance in focusing students' attention on what aspects or features of the organization to observe under such headings as :

- organization
- staff
- building

- stock
- routines and techniques
- reader services

The students are not required to report formally the results of their observations in the form of a project or assignment. No formal follow-up session or seminar is arranged, though informal discussion might well take place. (The guidelines document is attached as Appendix 6.)

5.4.2 Communication with the host institution

Letters are sent out to the potential host institutions asking if they would be willing to receive one or more students for a specified period. No specific requirements are laid down, apart from the general observation that a "varied and professional programme" in one or a few departments (where applicable) would benefit the student. Once an institution has signalled its willingness to participate in the fieldwork programme, another letter is sent providing particulars of the students (e.g. academic status, particular interests, particular talents, etc.) (Three letters, sent at different stages of negotiation, are attached as Appendix 7, 8 and 9.)

5.5 Analysis of the programme

The programme will be analysed under the following headings :

- aims of the programme
- implementation of the programme
- indicators of success (from the point of view of the library school staff)
- students' response and attitudes to the programme

In the first three categories the programme is analysed from the perspective of the library school and the host institutions. The data were derived from :

- programme documentation
- interviews with library school staff
- student reports of their activities

The data sources in the final category (i.e. students' responses and attitudes to the programme) were :

- student questionnaires
- student interviews.

Questionnaires sent to supervisors are, however, analysed separately from each case because they provide the collective perspective of the practitioners, and their views are not necessarily focused on either either of the library schools (Cf Chapter 7).

5.5.1 Aims of the programme

Analysis of the aims of the programme is an important element in the evaluation of a programme because, as Suchman points

out, the programme might fail because the educational rationale is faulty or erroneously conceived (1969 : 167). (Cf the discussion in Section 4.17.3 which discusses the role of analysis of educational aims and rationale in the evaluation of programmes.)

The aims of the programme as conceptualized by the library school are as follows :

- to provide and strengthen the link between theory and practice
- to provide an opportunity for students to gain a wide perspective of libraries and information centres
- to illustrate and exemplify concepts and principles taught in class
- to provide opportunities for students to practise and acquire professional skills

There was consensus among the lecturers about these aims of what they regarded as an important learning experience, but they recognized that in the time available, one should not have expectations that are too high, and that these aims will be differentially achieved according to the particular placement and the motivation of the student. There was consensus that contact and communication with practising professionals was an important aim of the programme for students to develop a sense of what it means to be a member of a professional community.

The lecturers visualized that exposure to a broad range of activities typical of each institution as the means of achieving some of the aims. There was consensus that students should have an all round exposure, including, importantly, contact and work with the public. It was recognized that the ideal of exposing students to a broad spectrum of activities would include, very often, requiring them to perform clerical and non-professional tasks. This was acceptable, in their view, provided that such tasks did not absorb most of their available time. Assigning students such tasks is defensible on the grounds of demonstrating that professionals, particularly in the lower levels of management, have to perform a wide range of tasks which cannot be strictly classified as "professional". There was agreement that an emphasis on actual participation and activity would enhance students' learning, in addition to orientation by means of demonstration and explanation.

5.5.2 Problems

The major problems could be classified into two categories : administrative and attitudinal. The administrative problems included the acknowledgement that the programme of three weeks is too short. Concern was expressed about how to solve this problem. The other administrative problem related to the observation that host institutions could not always devote as much time as they might like to the programme which was demanding of time and effort, because of pressures of work. This sometimes meant that there was a difference of level of opportunities that host institutions could offer students

which might affect the quality of the programme as perceived by the student. The host institutions perform an altruistic service in investing a great deal of effort and time, and their rewards are largely intangible.

Related to administrative problems, was the difficulty of liaison with host institutions, given the geographical dispersion of fieldwork sites in the country. It was seen as important to offer students the wide range of choice that they currently enjoy, but the difficulty of communication was acknowledged. If fieldwork sites were restricted, for example to a particular region, in an attempt to improve communication, this would still not increase the opportunities for contact between lecturers and students during the programme because of restricted staffing resources in the library school.

The attitudinal problem identified related to the differing levels of motivation with which the students approached the fieldwork. Some students had a high level of commitment to their future career which would be reflected in their positive attitude, while other students might not anticipate making library and information work their life-long career, and, as a result, be more diffident about the programme. The other potential problem identified was that students might be exposed to negativism about the profession in their encounters with practitioners.

5.5.3 Role of the library school

The major role of the library school was viewed as drawing up and providing guidelines to the host institutions. This is not yet a feature of the programme because the library school is awaiting recommendations from the current study. However, communication and liaison were seen as important functions of the library school. The lecturers also identified the need for the library school to take note of the assessment reports of the students relating to their performance, and to get feedback from the students about the programme.

5.5.4 Indicators of success

At present there is no formal debriefing of students so that the assessment of indicators of success of the programme is informal. Lecturers noted, however, that during their classes subsequent to the programme students showed greater levels of understanding and an ability to relate the various aspects of what they had learned. Enthusiasm was identified as a positive indicator of success which was informally assessed by way of observation of students' performance in class or expressed attitudes.

5.6 Implementation of the programme

The purpose in investigating the implementation variables of the programme is explored in Section 4.17.2. A definitive analysis is not provided in this section as many of the data are derived from the questionnaires, which are analysed in a separate section to build up a composite picture.

The typical pattern was for students to spend one week at an institution in April, at the end of the first quarter; and at the end of the first semester, to spend either one week each in two institutions, or two weeks in one institution. Placement at a particular institution was determined by a combination of choice and availability of sites.

An analysis of the placement sites in 1987 reveals the following frequency ranking :

- 61% of the students spent at least one week in a public library
- 56,1% students spent at least one week in a special library (legal, engineering, scientific, newspaper, industrial)
- 43,9% of the students spent at least one week in a library attached to a tertiary institution
- 24,4% of the students spent at least a week in a school library
- 19,5% of the students spent at least a week in a national or legal deposit library
- 9,8% of the students spent at least one week in a museum library

Accordingly, the range of activities and opportunities was wide. The students' programmed activities included :

- acquisitions work
- administrative tasks
- attendance at book selection and staff meetings
- bibliographic checking

- cataloguing and classifying
- children's work
- circulation work
- clerical tasks
- compilation of bibliographies
- display and exhibition work
- filing of cards, pamphlets and newspaper cuttings
- inputting of data into a computer
- literature search
- observation
- online searching
- reference work
- reviewing of books and films

Such an inventory of activities can, of course, only give a general impression of the sorts of activities and tasks students were involved in. No attempt has been made to break down the activities according to amount of time spent on each as this was considered to be an unproductive task. Later on in the section, the issue of work and learning activities is discussed as they contribute to the programme and influence the student's response to the programme. It is in this context that the researcher has been able to utilize the available data on types of activities and tasks.

Every student was put in the charge of a responsible officer who co-ordinated the programme and advised the students (except, of course, in the case of "one-man institutions" where the librarian was in charge). In most instances the

students were awaited and a programme of activities had been drawn up. In four cases where students were not expected to arrive for the fieldwork programme, this clearly affected their experience which had then to be arranged on an ad hoc basis with less than satisfactory results for the students, except in one case where the host librarian immediately made rapid amends. The lack of preparedness of the supervisors to receive the students, and the subsequent rather unsatisfactory programme, at least in three cases, point to an important implementation variable, viz. planning.

In every case, the students were given an introductory lecture by the supervisor of the programme, usually about the structure, aims and functions of the organization. In many cases this was followed by a tour of departments, where applicable. An exit interview was arranged in a small minority of cases. The supervisors played a pivotal role in organizing the programme, making introductions and co-ordinating the programme.

5.7 Students' response to the programme

This section focuses on the students' response to and experience of the programme. An attempt is made to determine their attitudes to the programme and to understand the programme in terms of their experience of it.

5.7.1 The analysis of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was analysed to yield quantified results with the open-ended questions in Part B providing evidence for

the interpretation of results. Where appropriate, scores are provided. Following the analysis of the closed questions in the questionnaire, responses to the open-ended questions and the interviews were analysed according to the concepts and categories formulated for the purpose. This section of the analysis, which is more discursive, refers back, where necessary, to data in the questionnaire which support or provide further evidence for conclusions drawn. There is, thus, an interplay between the data from the different sources and, in fact, a high degree of congruency between the data as a result of the triangulation procedures employed. (Details of the relevant analytical procedures are provided in Section 4.20.)

In the compilation of tables, it has occasionally been necessary to employ abbreviations for the sake of compressing the appropriate amount of information into the space available. A list of abbreviations used follows :

- fairly import.	fairly important
- gen. sat.	generally satisfactory
- gen. unsat.	generally unsatisfactory
- l i s	library and information science
- l i w	library and information work
- percent.	percentage
- pos.	positive
- sometimes sat.	sometimes satisfactory
- sometimes unsat.	sometimes unsatisfactory
- uncert.	uncertain
- v. import.	very important

5.7.2 Analysis of Part A of the questionnaire

An analysis of the Part A of the questionnaire, designed to test students' attitudes to the fieldwork programme, revealed a generally favourable response on the whole, with the top score being 130 and the lowest score 42 - i.e an index ranging from 4,81 to 1,56 respectively. (A high score represents a favourable attitude and a low score a negative attitude). All the positive items in Part A were scored as follows :

- Strongly agree = 5
- Agree = 4
- Uncertain = 3
- Disagree = 2
- Strongly disagree = 1

Negative statements (items 3, 11, 13, 16, 19, 22, 25) represent items with reverse polarity and have been scored as follows :

- Strongly agree = 1
- Agree = 2
- Uncertain = 3
- Disagree = 4
- Strongly disagree = 5

With 27 items in the pool, the maximum possible score is 135 and the minimum possible score 27 (i.e. an index of 5 and 1 respectively). An index of 5 would represent the most favourable possible attitude towards fieldwork, and an index of 1 the most negative possible attitude. Table 1 below displays the indices, representing the aggregated scores of

each individual student, in ranked order from the most favourable to the most negative score. The index for each student was computed by aggregating the scores for each individual item which was scored according to the degree of positivity represented by the response to that item.

TABLE 1. ATTITUDE INDICES RANKED (N = 42) AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

<u>Attitude index</u>	<u>Standard deviation</u>
4,81	0,48
4,74	0,45
4,74	0,45
4,48	0,70
4,33	0,92
4,22	0,64
4,19	0,48
4,19	0,56
4,15	1,13
4,15	0,82
4,00	0,88
3,96	0,59
3,96	0,76
3,93	0,62
3,85	0,72
3,78	0,80
3,70	0,72
3,70	0,54
3,67	0,68
3,67	0,55

TABLE 1 (CONTD.)

<u>Attitude index</u>	<u>Standard deviation</u>
3,59	0,97
3,56	0,70
3,48	1,09
3,44	0,70
3,37	1,04
3,33	0,88
3,30	0,91
3,26	1,16
3,22	0,85
3,19	0,83
3,15	0,95
3,15	0,86
3,04	1,09
3,00	0,92
3,00	1,07
2,93	0,78
2,93	1,04
2,70	0,91
2,48	0,64
2,44	1,05
2,44	1,40
1,56	1,19

Table 2 below shows the frequency and distribution of attitude indices according to degree of positivity. The mean score (attitude index) for each student were classified into five

categories according to the following ranges to determine the level of positivity/negativity :

Rating scale

Very positive	4,45 - 5,00
Positive	3,45 - 4,44
Mildly positive	2,45 - 3,44
Negative	1,45 - 2,44
Very negative	1,00 - 1,44

TABLE 2. RANGE OF POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY OF ATTITUDE INDICES

<u>Very positive</u>	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Mildly pos.</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Very negativ</u>
3 (7,1%)	21 (50%)	15 (11,9%)	3 (7,1%)	0

From this table it can be seen that more than half the students had a positive to a very positive attitude and 11,9% had an attitude that can be described as mildly positive to neutral. Only 3 students had a negative attitude.

Table 3 shows the dimensions ranked according to positivity of response. For each statement a mean score and standard deviation were calculated. (Note : negative scoring of some items referred to above.)

**TABLE 3. ATTITUDE INDEX : STATEMENTS RANKED ACCORDING TO
POSITIVITY OF RESPONSES**

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
The fieldwork should be withdrawn from the course	4,38	0,79
If the fieldwork were an optional component of the course, I would not go	4,21	0,81
Fieldwork is less useful than other components of the course	4,07	0,60
The programme was an unrewarding learning experience	4,05	0,94
In my opinion my time and effort was well spent on this learning experience	4,02	0,91
I developed greater awareness of practical problems related to library and information work	4,02	0,75
My fieldwork experience was irrelevant to my learning needs	3,95	0,85
Participating in the programme made little difference to me	3,93	0,84
The fieldwork programme was a meaningful learning experience	3,86	0,95
I now feel more aware of the needs of users of libraries/information centres	3,81	0,89
The programme has helped me integrate theoretical and practical aspects of the course	3,76	0,82
During the fieldwork programme I learned to understand new and different viewpoints	3,67	0,82
I can now relate to the subject matter of my whole course of studies from a wider perspective	3,60	0,96
The fieldwork programme offered me an opportunity to apply principles to practice	3,57	1,11

TABLE 3 (CONTD.)

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
The fieldwork experience has made my classroom learning seem more relevant	3,55	1,02
The programme helped me achieve a deeper understanding of library and information science	3,45	1,02
I would like to have spent more time on the fieldwork programme	3,43	1,38
The programme was a challenging learning experience	3,36	0,98
The programme allowed me to develop and practise communication skills	3,26	1,06
I developed more confidence in myself and my ability as a result of the fieldwork programme	3,24	0,98
I developed professional skills needed in library/information work	3,14	1,05
I feel more interested in the course as a whole as a result of fieldwork	3,02	1,09
Students doing fieldwork are used as cheap labour	2,95	1,21
The fieldwork programme encouraged independent thinking	2,90	1,03
My own learning objectives were achieved by the fieldwork programme	2,90	1,01
The fieldwork programme helped me develop a new approach to learning	2,79	0,95
The fieldwork programme offered me an opportunity to use my own initiative	2,64	1,03

5.7.3 Analysis of Part B of the questionnaire

This part of the questionnaire examined a variety of aspects of the programme that might have influenced students'

attitudes (as measured in Part A). For ease of reference, the wording of each question has been repeated. (Cf Appendix 2 for full text of the questionnaire.)

Because each question invited the respondents to furnish reasons for their responses, the researcher was able to interpret the responses in the light of the comments and reasons advanced. Where direct quotations are supplied to amplify particular aspects of categories under discussion, these quotations are derived from the open-ended responses in the questionnaire in the sections that invited explanations.

Question 1. "I was encouraged to offer opinions and constructive criticism on the institution, the department or the branch where I was assigned." Table 4 shows the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 4. NUMBER OF STUDENTS INVITED TO MAKE CRITICAL COMMENT

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
12 (28,6%)	22 (52,4%)	8 (19%)

It is clear that the majority of students were not encouraged to offer comment or constructive criticism. The reasons advanced for this limited opportunity given to students all had to do with their status as students, on the assumption that in that capacity they were not qualified to offer constructive opinion. Of the 12 students who did offer opinions, two felt that their comments were rejected or treated as irrelevant. These two students, incidentally,

registered the lowest scores in the attitude test (2,44 and 1,56 respectively).

This finding as a whole points to the disjunction between the teaching institution's aim of encouraging critical thinking and the reality of allowing students only limited opportunities to question and offer critical comment in the practical environment.

Question 2. "Has the fieldwork changed your opinion of what a librarian/information worker does?" Table 5 shows the number and percentage of responses in each category and Table 6 displays the direction of the change experienced.

TABLE 5. CHANGE IN AWARENESS OF LIBRARY AND INFORMATION WORK

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
24 (57%)	18 (43%)	0

TABLE 6. DIRECTION OF CHANGE

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>
16 (38,1%)	8 (19%)	18 (42,9%)

Of the 24 students who had changed their idea of what a library and information worker does following the fieldwork programme, 16 revised their opinions in a positive direction while 8 students changed their opinion in a negative direction. The positive comments expressed by 16 students all revolved around their greater understanding of the diversity and complexity of the field and professional challenges. The

fieldwork programme revealed areas, activities and concerns related to practice of which they had been unaware, but which contributed to their appreciation of the nature of professional practice. Of the minority of students (8) who reported a negative change in perception, 7 referred to the dull, boring and routine clerical nature of the work seen and done and the associated disjunction between theory and practice, and one student (with an attitude index of 3) remarked on the discrepancy between the enthusiasm of library school lecturers and the perceived disillusion and disaffection of workers in the field. Of the remaining students, 18 expressed a neutral response, indicating that their expectations had been more or less confirmed.

Question 3. Table 7 displays the results of Question 3 which required students to comment on the value of fieldwork in shedding light on various professional matters. The dimensions have been ranked according to the degree of support given to each statement. The figures under each column represent the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 7. RANKED ORDER OF SATISFACTION WITH DIMENSIONS OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncert.</u>
Organization of library/ information centres	38 90,5%	1 2,4%	3 7,1%
Relationship between libraries/ information centres and users	37 88,1%	2 8,4%	3 7,1%
Practical skills	33 78,6%	2 4,8%	7 16,6%
Current practice in l i s	32 76,2%	5 11,9%	5 11,9%
Career prospects	30 71,4%	8 19,1%	4 9,5%
User needs and behaviour	28 66,7%	9 21,4%	5 11,9%
Management practice and style	23 54,8%	8 19%	11 26,2%
Relationship between theory and practice	22 52,4%	11 26,2%	9 21,4%
Information technology	20 47,6%	16 38,1%	6 14,3%
Professional values	19 45,3%	11 26,2%	12 28,5%
Relationship between l i s and other academic areas	13 31%	17 40,5%	12 28,5%

The dimension receiving the lowest - in fact a predominantly negative - ranking is the relationship between library and information science and other academic areas. At a theoretical level, this is not a surprising finding since a

focus on this relationship is not usually accorded any kind of importance in the literature. When one considers the potential of the fieldwork programme, however, it does appear to be a neglected area and one that could be more fruitfully considered, particularly when one recalls that library and information science is very often characterized as being derived from or resting on other foundational disciplines. The SAILIS Standards refer, for example, to the relationship between - and the contribution made by - extra-professional disciplines such as Industrial Economics and Sociology and foundational aspects of library and information services (SAILIS, 1987 : 32).

It is noteworthy that the relationship between theory and practice gets one of the lowest rankings : only 52,4% of the students were satisfied that the fieldwork programme had shed light on that relationship. This is a surprising result when one considers that the majority of educators and practitioners would rate it as an important aim of the programme. (Cf Section 3.3 for a discussion of the aims and objectives of fieldwork.)

The other finding of major significance in this question that appears to be anomalous is the low rating for the dimension of professional values. The fieldwork programme is usually conceptualized as an important vehicle for the transmission of professional values in the process of socialization. This finding will be discussed later under the heading of

professional socialization where accumulated data allowed the researcher to interpret this finding (Cf Section 5.9).

Question 4. "Has the fieldwork programme had any effect on your career plans?" The number and percentage of responses in each category is displayed in Table 8 :

TABLE 8. EFFECT ON CAREER PLANS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncert.</u>
39 (92,9%)	2 (4,8%)	1 (2,3%)

An overwhelming majority of students answered that the programme had exercised an influence on their career plans. In 37 of the 39 cases reporting a change, the programme exercised a positive effect with respect to career plans in the following related ways :

- revealed career possibilities and defined options that the students had been unaware of
- strengthened their resolve to pursue a particular branch or speciality
- allowed them to refine their career choices by identifying what to avoid, what particular branch or speciality to follow or what environment was compatible with their needs

The gain in this case can be described as a positive one (37 students or 88,1%). In the exceptional cases, the influence exercised was in a negative direction with one student reporting a decision to abandon plans to be a librarian

(although planning to finish the course) and the other student being given cause to doubt the correctness of the career decision to be a librarian.

The following statements are representative of those reflecting a positive effect on career plans :

I had preconceptions of what I'd like to avoid, e.g. working in a public library, but I've changed my mind as a result of the pleasant impression I gained working at the public library

I am determined not to go to a public library
- the work is too routine

I entered the course wanting to be a school librarian, but now I realize that I'd like to work in a special library

I am motivated to study further so that I can work in a special or academic library

In summary, it can be stated that this consistent effect demonstrates that the programme has a high level of impact on career choices and thus has a high career relevance. However, it is difficult to determine how decisive this effect can be because often, and more particularly in the present economic climate, market forces rather than predisposition or desire might have a more powerful influence on where the students find employment at entry level to the profession.

Question 5. "Have your expectations of fieldwork been fulfilled?" Table 9 shows the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 9. FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS ABOUT FIELDWORK

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
18 (42,9%)	16 (38,1%)	8 (19,1%)

Of the 18 students who reported that their expectations had been fulfilled, one student had held low expectations which had been fulfilled. Hence only 17 students had a favourable response to this question (a low 40,5%). The reasons for their satisfaction clustered around pragmatic concerns such as being given the opportunity to see different libraries/information centres in operation.

The 16 students who reported having unfulfilled expectations expressed disappointment on a common theme, viz. that they had expected to be more involved in the activities, to be allowed to make a greater contribution and to be allowed greater practice and participation. Of the 8 uncertain responses, the main reason for uncertainty cited was that the students had not known what to expect. One student in this category expressed himself more forcefully and complained that a lack of briefing had been responsible for the absence of expectations, and that the fieldwork would have been more rewarding if the students had been better prepared for it.

Question 6. "Have your expectations about the course as a whole been fulfilled ?" This question was posed in order to determine whether there is a relationship between the fulfilment of expectations related to the course as a whole and those related to the fieldwork programme. The distribution of responses was very similar to that of the preceding question, as Table 10 shows :

TABLE 10. FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS ABOUT THE COURSE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncert.</u>
12 (28,6%)	15 (35,7%)	15 (35,7%)

Fifteen students responded that their expectations had not been fulfilled on the grounds that the course was too full, too theoretical and lacking in practical orientation. Although there appears to be a high proportion of unfulfilled expectations regarding the course as a whole, the tone of the responses is not very critical, the dominant reason being that the students had hoped for a greater practical component. It should be noted that the questionnaires were completed and the interviews conducted towards the end of the academic year, so that this assessment of the course can be regarded as being reasonably stable.

Table 11 compares the responses to Question 5 and Question 6 with respect to fulfilment of expectations. The number and percentage of responses is given for each category.

TABLE 11. COMPARISON OF RESPONSES WITH RESPECT TO FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
Fieldwork	18 (42,9%)	16 (38,1%)	8 (19,1%)
Course as a whole	12 (28,6%)	15 (35,7%)	15 (35,7%)

What can be concluded from this comparison is that students are relatively more satisfied with the fieldwork programme than with the course as a whole. The common cause for concern manifested in both questions relates to a desire for more practical experience.

Question 7. "As a result of the fieldwork programme I feel more positive about my chosen profession." The distribution, by number and percentage, of the responses in each category is displayed in Table 12.

TABLE 12. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS EVINCING GREATER POSITIVITY ABOUT THE LIBRARY AND INFORMATION PROFESSION

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
26 (61,9%)	11 (26,2%)	5 (11,9%)

The reasons for the shift towards a more positive attitude towards the profession relate to greater confidence in the ability to make more informed career choices, a greater insight into the work of a library and information worker and the opportunities for interesting and challenging work. One student aptly articulated an opinion that was representative of this view :

Fieldwork highlighted the ways to achieve the aims and objectives of library and information science

The reasons for the shift towards a less positive attitude tended to cluster around the nature of the work and the working environment (11 students) while three of these students added that the librarians did not manifest positive professional attitudes or professional behaviour in their dealings with users and colleagues. The following statements reflect their perceptions of the work and working environment :

Unless one becomes an academic one is bound for a life-time of frustrated dealings with bureaucracy

Librarians seem to be performing boring, repetitive tasks

Question 8. "How would you describe your supervision during the fieldwork programme?" Table 13 indicates the distribution of responses in the various categories and the level of satisfaction with supervision :

TABLE 13. LEVEL OF SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION

<u>Gen. sat.</u>	<u>Sometimes sat.</u>	<u>Sometimes unsat.</u>	<u>Gen. unsat.</u>
33 (78,6%)	4 (9,5%)	3 (4,8%)	3 (7,1%)

The vast majority of students were satisfied with their supervision. If one combines the middle two categories into a category of partial satisfaction, the total response in that category is 16,6%. A very small minority of students (viz.

three students) were generally dissatisfied with the level of supervision. These students had the lowest ranked indices as scored according to the attitudinal section of the questionnaire (Part A), viz. 2,44, 2,44 and 1,56.

Supervision was rated satisfactory by the majority of students for the following reasons :

- effort made by the supervisor
- availability of supervisor
- helpfulness
- clarity of teaching and demonstration

The students who reported partial satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with supervision did not display a generally negative attitude towards supervisors but explained that the supervisors in those cases were apparently too busy, distracted or involved elsewhere to guide students or supervise their activities. Poor supervision was linked in the three extreme cases of negative attitudes towards the programme as a whole, and can thus be taken to be a major indicator of dissatisfaction with the programme. The reasons for their negative response are clear from these direct quotations :

I was lectured to as if I was "bear of very little brain" [sic]

I had to go around after the first day looking for people. One library was unprepared and dumped me in one department for a whole week

Question 9. "I had a clear idea of what was expected of me during the fieldwork programme." Table 14 classifies the responses and gives the frequency of response in each category.

TABLE 14. LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF WHAT WAS EXPECTED OF STUDENTS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
27 (64,3%)	4 (9,5%)	11 (26,2%)

The majority of students were clear about what was expected of them. Twenty-three of the students who were certain of what was expected of them reported that they were informed by their supervisors, while 4 of the 27 worked it out for themselves. The pragmatic stance of the latter group can be gauged from two representative answers :

You are a student and students are meant to learn

I was a student and what was expected of me was to perform well enough to get a good report

Two students who did not understand what was expected of them attributed this to poor supervision (the same two students who were very dissatisfied with the level of supervision - cf Question 8) and the other two found their role ambiguous as they did not know what the library school expected the host institution to provide and they did not know whether their role was to observe or how much they might be expected to participate. (Cf one of the responses to Question 5 which

referred to the effect of inadequate briefing on the outcomes of the fieldwork experience, thus lending support to this finding.) The 11 students who were sometimes uncertain of what was expected of them attributed their uncertainty to supervisors' lack of clarity or lack of guidance.

Question 10. "Which of the following terms most accurately reflects your evaluation of the fieldwork programme ?" Their responses can be grouped into three broad categories as shown in Table 15.

TABLE 15. STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THE FIELDWORK PROGRAMME

<u>Good/very good</u>	<u>Adequate</u>	<u>Poor</u>
25 (59,5%)	13 (31%)	4 (9,5%)

The reasons for the favourable response to the programme as a whole can be classified into two categories :

- extrinsic factors relating to good organization, effort and time spent by host institutions on students to provide a programme (11,9% of students)
- educational factors relating to gains in insight, expansion of knowledge, gains in practical experience (47,6% of students)

The dominant factor prevailing in the responses which assessed the programme as adequate was a lower level of realization of aims. These students reported that though the cognitive and affective gains had been modest, the experience had been

relevant for career decisions and in having given an overview of libraries and information centres.

Of the 4 students evincing an unfavourable attitude, 3 scored the lowest on the attitude index and the fourth student had gained a poor impression of librarians (cf Question 7). Their attitude indices were 1,56; 2,44; 2,44; and 3, respectively. The three lowest indices have been classified as negative according to the scale used in Part A, while the index of 3 represents a mildly positive attitude. The anomaly resides in the difficulty of reconciling a verbal statement indicating dissatisfaction and a numerical score, computed on a different rating, that indicates a mildly positive attitude. If one examines the responses of this student to other questions, it is clear that the positive rating of some dimensions of the programme were "washed out" by the very negative reaction to the perception of disaffected librarians and poor professional attitudes and behaviour. Of the other students who responded negatively to this question, two located the blame in poor relationships with supervisory staff and one attributed the cause to an educational failure : the programme failed to integrate theory with practice.

The four students who responded negatively recognized the potential value of a fieldwork programme but felt that the programme, in their case, had been a wasted opportunity because of poor rapport between themselves and supervisors, and a lack of opportunity for them to make any contribution. There was a high level of frustration among these students

(all of whom passed the course with above average grades; one with an excellent grade.)

There is a good correlation between the responses in this question and the attitude index thereby lending support to the construct validity of the dimensions in Part A of the questionnaire which measured attitudes to the programme. Question 10 validates Part A of the questionnaire in that the global assessment made in this question correlates positively with the indices calculated in Part A. (The anomaly of the student with an index of 3 has already been referred to in a preceding paragraph.)

There is also a good correlation between this question and Question 8 which required students to rate their supervision. The three students with the lowest indices were very dissatisfied with the supervision and also assessed the programme globally as poor or irrelevant. The fourth student (with an index of 3) who rated the programme as poor generally also rated the supervision as partially unsatisfactory and "felt in the way".

Question 11. "The fieldwork programme was well organized by the individual institutions." This question was aimed at assessing the level of organization of the programme and the extent to which this influenced the response of the students to the programme. Table 16 shows the number and percentage of responses in each category.

TABLE 16. STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
27 (64,3%)	1 (2,4%)	14 (33,3%)

The majority of students responded positively to this aspect of the programme, reporting that the programme was well organized. Fourteen students had a mixed experience in that some of the host institutions provided a well organized programme while others did not. No pattern could be discerned here - the sound organization of the programme did not, for example, depend on size of the host institution, which might have been considered as a variable affecting planning and implementation of the programme.

Only one student responded negatively to the entire programme with respect to organization because "no one was prepared for me". This student's overall attitude, as computed from responses to Part A, was negative (with an index of 2,44). Only four students (apart from the student with a negative response) reported that some of the institutions had not prepared a programme in advance and that they simply had to "slot in". In summary, the evidence suggests that the organization was good to adequate.

Question 12. "If you were asked to rate your performance in the fieldwork programme, how would you rate it ?" Table 17 shows the classification of responses, and numbers and percentage in each category :

TABLE 17. STUDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THEIR PERFORMANCE

<u>Very successful</u>	<u>Successful</u>	<u>Unsuccessful</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Varied</u>
1 (2,4%)	30 (71,4%)	2 (4,8%)	8 (19%)	1 (2,4%)

The majority of students were satisfied that their performance in the fieldwork programme had been successful. The indicators of success of the majority of students can be classified into the following three categories :

- positive feedback
- absence of negative feedback
- the fact that they had been able to follow instructions

The reason in 7 of the 8 cases of students who were unable to assess their performance was that they had no feedback from supervisors (16,7%) and in one case the student did not know what was expected and thus had no means of judging performance. Feedback, in this context, does not refer to the formal assessment of students by supervisors, but informal feedback such as is common in a teaching/learning situation.

One student who reported an unsuccessful rating in this question, used a very different measure : the failure to integrate theory and practice. This contrasts with the rather narrower definition of success used by the other students, viz. operation learning, or an emphasis on the ability to follow procedures. The other student (with a negative attitude index) who rated the performance as unsuccessful attributed the lack of success to the poor attitude of

supervisors who were "bored or hostile" and thus prevented the student from doing the best.

Question 13. "What do you consider to be the main weaknesses of the programme ?" This question sought to elicit from the students what they considered to be weak features of the programme and to try to discern if there was any pattern. A total of 55 weaknesses were identified (some students mentioning more than one weakness). Students' descriptions fell into four categories as defined by the researcher, producing the response pattern presented in Table 18 :

TABLE 18. MAIN WEAKNESSES OF THE PROGRAMME IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Weakness identified</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Timing and length	40,9%	27	64,3%
Activities	24,3%	16	38,1%
Student role	18,2%	12	28,6%
Feedback/Briefing	16,7%	11	26,2%

The most frequently mentioned weakness was that of timing and length of programme. The students who identified timing as a weakness did so because they believed that fieldwork should not take place during the vacation when students are tired after a quarter's or semester's work. The main defect in this category centred around the length of the programme, the opinion being that it is too short for students to achieve the educational aims.

A few statements will illustrate the category :

We need more time for fieldwork, or practice in a realistically simulated environment to add to fieldwork

We can spend too long at unrewarding sites and not enough in a good placement

The category with the second highest frequency related to the programme of activities. Students mentioning this as the main defect complained that the tasks were often boring, decontextualized and fragmented. A few students mentioned that the activities had not been programmed and that the ad hoc nature of the programme meant that educational aims were not always met and that students were merely kept busy. A few quotations will reflect students' concern in this area :

Most libraries give you "student" jobs which are by definition boring and have been ignored since the last fieldworker was there

We were either underemployed or did the same task for days

We did boring tasks for their convenience

Too much time is spent on activities out of context. It is difficult to see the job in perspective.

The next most prominent aspect was difficult to classify because it related not only to the attitude of supervisors but also to students' perception of their role. The students focusing on this weakness referred to the unpreparedness of the institutions and the reluctance of the supervisors to invite students' active participation. Students consequently felt in the way or underemployed and ascribed the ambiguity in

their role to uncertainty on the part of the supervisors as to what they ought to be doing. This finding reinforces the finding in Question 5 which refers to some students' unfulfilled expectation of having a more active role in the programme.

The final category related both to briefing of students and host institutions, and the lack of feedback and monitoring of students' progress. With respect to briefing of students, more than one student described the placement of students as a "lottery".

Although it has been possible to cluster the responses around these themes, scrutiny of the categories reveal that they could all be subsumed under a generic category reflecting a concern for the educational outcomes of the experience and the factors that affect learning outcomes negatively. The themes introduced in this question are important and will be analysed at greater length later in the light of further available evidence because of their impact on learning and other outcomes (Cf Sections 5.9.5, 5.10 and 5.11.1.)

Question 14. "What do you consider to be the most beneficial feature(s) of the fieldwork programme?" Sixty-nine statements was made, with some students naming more than one benefit. Benefits named by two or more students were classified into categories presented in ranked order in Table 19 :

TABLE 19. MAIN BENEFITS OF THE PROGRAMME IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Benefit identified</u>	<u>% of responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Introduction to working environment	33,3%	23	54,8%
Anticipatory socialization	31,9%	22	52,4%
Gain practical experience	13,0%	9	21,4%
Career relevance	13,0%	9	21,4%
Link between theory and practice	8,7%	6	14,3%

The total number of benefits identified (69) marginally exceeded the total number of weaknesses identified (66). The most prominent gain refers to the introduction/exposure to a working environment. This is nonetheless an important benefit in that fieldwork is the only environment in which students can observe the actual operation of a library/information centre and can observe professionals at work.

This gain has a close link with the next most frequently mentioned benefit, anticipatory socialization (a concept not, of course, explicitly referred to as such by the students). The process of anticipatory socialization (Cf Merton *et al*, 1957 and Olesen & Whittaker, 1968) is explained in Section 2.4.5.4 where its relevance to the professional education programme is discussed.) A prominent feature of anticipatory socialization as reported by the students was gaining insight into the professional role in the "real world". For this reason, as a category, it is conceptually linked with the preceding category of exposure to real working environments

and the dimension of reality. This is a very important and pervasive aspect of the fieldwork programme that will be discussed at greater length with reference to supportive data from the interviews (Cf Section 5.9.1.)

Sharing a frequency rating are the two benefits of the gaining of practical experience and career relevance (already noted in Question 4). Providing the link between theory and practice gets rather a low rating considering the prominence it enjoys in educational philosophy and rationale (Cf Section 3.3.) Even in these six statements referring to this gain there is cautious appraisal of the link evident in qualified statements such as :

It possibly helps you with theory

You realize that theory does not always work

You see that the theory you learn does not always fit

Question 15. "What did you like most about doing fieldwork ?"

While Question 13 probed for opinions relating to an educational conception of the programme, this question focuses on a subjective appreciation of the programme. Table 20 reveals in ranked order the features of the programme that students appreciated. There were 65 statements which were classified as follows :

TABLE 20. FEATURES OF THE PROGRAMME APPRECIATED BY STUDENTS

<u>Category</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Gaining practical experience	27,7%	18	42,9%
Observation of operations, procedures, functions	18,5%	12	28,6%
Interaction with users	18,5%	12	28,6%
Involvement with meaningful work	13,8%	9	21,4%
Insight into professional practice/role	12,3%	8	19,1%
Career decisions/choice	6,2%	4	9,5%
Application of theory to practice	1,5%	1	2,4%
Unclassifiable	1,5%	1	2,4%

An analysis of these responses and their distribution, reveals, as did Question 14, an emphasis on pragmatic concerns such as observation of the working environment, adding to the repertoire of practical skills, and the ability to make discriminating career decisions. Categories of interaction with users, insight into professional practice and role, and involvement with meaningful work denote evidence of a deeper and more involved level of appreciation of the meaning of the experience.

The categories emerging in this question are strikingly similar to the categories emerging from the responses to Question 14 with the exception of the final unclassifiable category which read a resigned, "Not much".

Question 16. "What did you like least about doing fieldwork ?" This question provides the counterpart to the preceding question and aims at gaining insight into the students' subjective response to the programme and at judging whether a pattern emerges. Features mentioned by two or more students were classified into a number of categories. The categories are displayed in ranked order in Table 21 which also shows the distribution of students' responses :

TABLE 21. FEATURES OF THE PROGRAMME THAT STUDENTS LIKED LEAST

<u>Category</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Activities	49,1%	27	64,3%
Student role/ Librarians' attitude	34,5%	19	45,2%
Lack of feedback	7,3%	4	9,5%
Time	3,6%	2	4,8%
Unclassifiable	5,5%	3	7,1%

These results point strikingly to two dominant features that caused concern to the students : the type of activities and tasks assigned to them and, in the affective domain, their role in the institution and relationship with host librarians and supervisors. Students identified the activities and tasks as being a major concern for the following reasons :

- menial trivial tasks
- unproductive tasks
- tasks having little educational value

The next most prominent category is more difficult to define so precisely. The anxieties clustered around the ambiguity and strangeness of their role as students (13 students) and difficulties with supervisors (6 students). A few representative quotations will illustrate this category :

I hated not having a defined role and being shifted about and regarded as a bit of a nuisance

Feeling as though I was underfoot

Difficult supervisors

Supervisors' patronising attitude

A salient feature to emerge in the description of their role is the loss of control and autonomy and experiencing a sense of being a supernumerary or a nuisance. This finding is linked to the earlier conclusion that a lack of guidelines and careful briefing gives rise to uncertainty both on the part of the students and on the part of the host institutions. (Cf Questions 5, 9 and 13.)

Question 17. "Which of the following terms describes the work you were given?" This question attempted to gauge the students' response, in predetermined categories, to the tasks they were given. The picture that emerged from the responses was varied as the results displayed in Table 22 show :

TABLE 22. DESCRIPTION OF TASKS ASSIGNED

<u>Description</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Too much	2	4,8%
Too little	8	19,1%
Satis.	32	76,2%
Interesting	10	23,8%
Dull	7	16,7%
Both	25	59,5%
Too easy	14	33,3%
Suitable	28	66,7%
Too difficult	0	0%
Varied	15	35,7%
Repetitive	8	19,1%
Both	19	45,2%

These results reveal no consistent pattern of tasks assigned or programmed activities, a predictable outcome considering the number and disparateness of the sites and the lack of detailed guidelines to host institutions. The work was predictably described as a mixture of interesting/dull, easy/difficult and varied/repetitive. The comments are more revealing than the ratings and help build up a composite picture when considered together with Questions 13, 14 and 15 insofar as these questions provide evidence about the nature of the tasks and programmed activities.

A prominent concern to emerge from the collective findings of these questions is the resistance students have to doing "too many" repetitive and menial tasks. Related to the issue of expecting students to spend protracted periods on routine tasks is the consequence of thereby limiting the amount of time they can spend on challenging and more fulfilling activities. One student had to fill in for an employee who

was away for a few days, which meant being located in one department doing one job, and not learning much else. This arrangement generated considerable resentment in the student who described the practice as "unethical". This student scored 2,44 on the attitude index, which has been classified as indicating a negative attitude (Cf Section 5.9.4 for a discussion of the issue of task assignment and professional socialization.)

Question 18. "High standards of performance were set." This question is related to Question 17 in that its purposes is to discover more about the tasks set and the levels of performance expected. Again, as in the previous question, there was great variation in the pattern of responses as Table 23 shows :

TABLE 23. STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
4 (9,5%)	9 (21,4%)	14 (33,3%)	13 (30,9%)

Only a small number of students (4 or 9,5%) reported being aware of standards of performance. The only occasions when explicit standards were set involved tasks such as cataloguing and inputting of SABINET records. This is unsurprising because in these cases, standards of accuracy are easier to specify than in other cases. In the greater number of cases where students were aware of standards, these were implicit and students became conscious of them by observing and taking their cue from the librarians who performed according to high

professional standards or they realized that the nature of the task (e.g. work at the circulation desk) required high standards of accuracy.

Of the students who were unaware of standards, the majority attributed this to lack of feedback or lack of clear instruction and guidance in the setting of tasks. The major conclusion is that students lacked explicit instruction and standards of performance or that the level of task was such that the setting of standards was irrelevant (e.g. the opening of envelopes).

Question 19. "The objectives and requirements of the fieldwork programme were communicated clearly and explicitly by the Library School." This question attempted to gauge the effect of briefing on the students. The distribution of responses by number and percentage in each category is shown in Table 24 :

TABLE 24. SETTING OF OBJECTIVES AND REQUIREMENTS BY THE LIBRARY SCHOOL

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Partially</u>
6 (14,3%)	7 (16,7)%	29 (69%)

The conclusion based on these results is that the communication and briefing of students is not adequate. Only 6 students had a positive response to this question, while 7 students responded negatively and the rest of the students reported that they had only got a partial and inadequate idea

of the objectives and requirements of the fieldwork programme. Five of the 6 positive responses reported that the main idea communicated to them was that the programme was compulsory and that they had no choice in the matter.

The 36 students whose responses are classified in the "no" or "partial" category all expressed dissatisfaction with the briefing and preparation procedures. Although students had an introductory briefing session and were issued with a guidelines document, they felt that the requirements set out were too broad and unspecific and related mainly to matters such as politeness, punctuality and "fitting in". There was consensus in these responses that the briefing was inadequate.

A few direct quotations will convey the concerns of the students in this area and the consensus that there was too much emphasis on external forms of behaviour and too little on the educational objectives :

Instructions about behaviour are not sufficient. Students should be instructed more specifically about what they should attempt to learn from the experience and what type of work they should be expected to do so that they don't end up doing only clerical work

The handout gave you some tips and rules but was not sufficient

There was not enough preparation and briefing of the students. They should communicate to students the importance and significance of the programme

The finding here is linked with the findings in Questions 5, 9 and 13, viz. that not enough time is spent on defining and communicating the purpose and expectations of the programme (Cf also Section 5.11.1.)

Question 20. "The supervising librarian(s) suggested specific ways I could improve my performance." This question attempted to explore the pedagogical role in supervisory behaviour and the extent of feedback. The responses were distributed according to the pattern presented in Table 25 :

TABLE 25. NUMBERS OF STUDENTS RECEIVING EXPLICIT ADVICE ON HOW TO IMPROVE PERFORMANCE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
0	33 (78,6%)	9 (21,4%)

The results show that the majority of students were not guided by their supervisors on how they could improve their performance and that only a small percentage occasionally were given useful guidance and advice on their performance, mostly in connection with reference work (5 students or 11,9%) where specific strategies or approaches were suggested.

Judging from this picture it would seem that feedback is lacking in a large number of cases. Further evidence for this conclusion is provided by the responses to Question 18 where students reported on the lack of evaluation and feedback.

Question 21. "I felt motivated to do my best." The intention of this question was to gauge the effects of motivation on the students' attitude and response to the programme, as motivation is a powerful factor influencing learning outcomes. The results are displayed in Table 26 which shows the number and percentage of responses in each category:

TABLE 26. LEVELS OF MOTIVATION REPORTED BY STUDENTS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
27 (64,3%)	2 (4,8%)	13 (30,9%)

A very small minority of students (only 2) did not feel motivated at all. The majority of students (64,3%) were motivated and the balance of students were sometimes motivated. These results portray a high degree of motivation. Of the two students who responded negatively, both are now doubtful about their choice of career. One has decided definitely not to pursue library and information work as a career and the other reported doubts about the wisdom of career choice.

Two sources of motivation have been identified from the data :

- Intrinsic : a high level of self-motivation (18 students or 42,9%)
- Extrinsic factors were present in 10 students' motivation. These factors fall into three major categories :

- * the librarian's attitude (6 students or 14,3%)
- * the nature of the tasks (3 students or 7,1%)
- * fear of receiving a negative report (1 student)

In the cases where students reported that they sometimes did not feel motivated, the same extrinsic factors were identified, viz. the attitude of the librarians or supervisors, or the nature and interest level of the tasks (9 students or 21,4%).

The following direct quotations illustrate both the function of librarians' attitudes and interest level as positive motivating factors, and the existence of intrinsic factors :

I wanted to prove to myself that I could be a good librarian

It depended on the supervisor : if she was friendly and approachable, yes, otherwise not

When they listened to me I tried harder

If the tasks were interesting, I put in more effort

The following direct quotations demonstrate the effect of demotivating factors :

The attitude of some librarians was not conducive to motivation

The tasks did not always allow me to test my skills and I got bored

I felt I was being used by the librarian

The level of energy in the organization affected my motivation. Where employees were obviously depressed and demotivated I did not respond well with total involvement.

The results reveal that while a large number of students were self-motivated, most of the students responded (either positively or negatively) to extrinsic factors such as the following :

- supervisors' and others' attitudes towards students
- response to perceived level of motivation in professional colleagues
- nature and interest level of tasks and activities

Question 22. "What do you think of the timing of the fieldwork sessions ?" The majority of the students found the timing of the sessions unsatisfactory as is shown in Table 27 which displays the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 27. DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH TIMING OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Satisfactory</u>	<u>Unsatisfactory</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
12 (28,6%)	26 (61,9%)	4 (9,5%)

The most frequently cited reason for dissatisfaction was that students disliked working in the vacation after semester examinations (19 students or 45,2%). Four students (9,5%) cited educational reasons for finding the session in the April vacation as too early in the academic year for them to achieve much. One student felt that the timing might be inconvenient for the host library.

Question 23. "If fieldwork were omitted from the course, the course would be ...". This question attempted to provide an

overall characterization of the course along various dimensions if there were no fieldwork programme. Table 28 shows the response pattern in the various pre-determined categories :

TABLE 28. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAMME IF FIELDWORK WERE OMITTED

<u>Course would be</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
More enjoyable	1	2,4%
Less enjoyable	36	85,7%
Uncertain	5	11,9%
More useful	0	0%
Less useful	40	95,2%
Uncertain	2	4,7%
More interesting	0	0%
Less interesting	35	83,3%
Uncertain	7	16,7%
No different	2	4,8%
Different	40	95,2%
Uncertain	0	0%

The picture that emerges from these results is the existence of considerable support for the fieldwork programme which scores highly on the utility and impact dimensions and slightly less highly on the enjoyment and interest dimensions. The few negative ratings and the uncertain responses can be accounted for consistently by two students with the lowest attitude index.

Question 24. "The following is a list of possible aims for the fieldwork programme." The purpose of this question was to establish the importance for students of a number of potential aims of the fieldwork programme. Mean scores were computed

for each aim. Table 29 shows in ranked order the amount of support for each aim identified :

TABLE 29. POSSIBLE AIMS FOR AN IDEAL FIELDWORK PROGRAMME IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Mean score</u>
To provide the link between theory and practice	4,83
To familiarize students with tools and routines of l i w	4,73
To learn about the organization of libraries/information centres	4,47
To expose students to various working environments	4,45
To perform basic skills	4,42
To illustrate material taught in class	4,38
To learn about user needs and behaviour	4,35
To instil confidence	4,33
To instil professional attitudes	4,16
To practise communication skills	4,16
To observe good practice	4,09
To develop problem-solving skills	3,80
To observe good librarians and information workers at work	3,14
To develop independent learning	3,11
To test students' suitability for the profession	3,02
To provide students with professional contacts	3,02
To test students' practical ability	2,67
To vary teaching methods	2,38
To provide a break from formal class	1,71

Another way of analysing the responses to this question is to rank each aim according to the degree of positive support (with 5 representing maximum support and 1 minimum support). In Table 30 each aim is ranked according to the positivity of the aggregated responses :

TABLE 30. AIMS RANKED ACCORDING TO POSITIVITY OF RESPONSE

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Values</u>				
	5	4	3	2	1
To provide link between theory and practice	35 83,3%	7 16,7%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To familiarize students with tools and routines	31 73,8%	11 26,2%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To learn about the organization of libraries/information centres	22 52,4%	18 42,8%	2 4,8%	0 0	0 0
To expose students to various working environments	22 52,4%	17 40,5%	3 7,1%	0 0	0 0
To perform basic skills	20 47,6%	20 47,6%	2 4,8%	0 0	0 0
To illustrate material taught in class	16 38,1%	26 61,9%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To learn about user needs and behaviour	15 35,7%	27 64,3%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To instil confidence	18 42,9%	20 47,6%	4 9,5%	0 0	0 0
To instil professional attitudes	15 35,7%	21 50%	6 14,3%	0 0	0 0

TABLE 30 (CONTD.)

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Values</u>				
	5	4	3	2	1
To practise communication skills	13 30,9%	23 54,8%	6 14,3%	0 0	0 0
To observe good practice	18 42,9%	10 23,8%	14 33,3%	0 0	0 0
To develop problem-solving skills	6 14,3%	24 57,1%	10 23,8%	2 4,8%	0 0
To observe good librarians and information workers at work	13 30,9%	9 21,4%	15 35,7%	3 7,1%	2 4,8%
To develop independent learning	2 4,8%	14 33,3%	15 35,7%	9 21,4%	2 4,8%
To test students' suitability for the profession	1 2,4%	6 14,3%	27 64,3%	7 16,7%	1 2,4%
To provide students with professional contacts	2 4,8%	7 16,7%	24 57,1%	8 19%	1 2,4%
To test students' practical ability	2 4,8%	3 7,1%	17 40,5%	18 42,9%	2 4,8%
To vary teaching methods	0 0	0 0	21 50%	16 38,1%	5 11,9%
To provide a break from formal classes	0 0	0 0	4 9,5%	22 52,4%	16 38,1%

It is possible to draw a number of conclusions from these tables and to assess the relative importance of each aim. The highest rated objective, viz. the provision of the link

about the organization of libraries/information centres, and students' satisfaction with actual achievement of aims shows a high correlation between the potential and actualization (Cf Table 7 which shows this dimension as being the one with the greatest support). A high correlation is also evident between the aim of learning about the relationship between libraries/information centres and their users and its realization. This was both identified as an important aim, and as a dimension with a high rating of satisfaction, 88,1% of the students being satisfied with this aspect (Cf Table 7).

There is a good correlation between the aim of acquisition of practical skill and realization of this aim (Cf Table 7). There is also quite a strong correlation between the aim of learning about users and their needs and the realization of that aim, as measured in Question 3, where 66,7% of the students reported satisfaction with this dimension of learning in the programme (Cf Table 7). Likewise, there is a positive correlation between the identification of the importance of the aim of being exposed to current practice in library and information science and its achievement, according to the results recorded in Question 3, 76% of the students being satisfied with this dimension of the programme (Cf Table 7).

Whereas the transmission of professional values is identified here as an important aim, in Question 3 only 45,3% of the students were satisfied that this aim had been met in the programme (Cf Table 7).

The relatively low value given to the aim of independent learning, is in conflict with conventional educational wisdom which identifies it as an important aim associated with experiential learning (Cf Section 2.4.4.). It is also noteworthy that the aim of testing the students' suitability for the profession is not accorded a higher rating, particularly since the investigation has demonstrated that two students did, in fact, re-assess their choice of profession in the light of the fieldwork experience which provides the first testing site of the work aspect of their studies as opposed to the academic content which is tested by the conventional means of examinations, assignments and the like. However, the relative unimportance that students assign to the assessment procedures in the fieldwork programme might account for their not rating the testing element as very significant. The rating of the two aims in the unimportant category is predictable and it is not surprising that in comparison with other aims that are of obviously greater educational significance they are not highly rated.

Question 25. "Do you have any suggestions about how the course might be improved?" This question yielded 73 suggestions, 71 of which were classifiable into 5 categories. Two isolated statements have been put in the unclassified category. Table 31 shows the distribution of responses in each category :

TABLE 31. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT TO FIELDWORK PROGRAMME
IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Category</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of student</u>
Brief students	21,9%	16	38,1%
Feedback	20,6%	15	35,7%
Brief hosts	19,2%	14	33,3%
Programme of activities	15,1%	11	26,2%
Timing	6,9%	5	11,1%
Unclassifiable	2,7%	2	4,8%

The category with the highest level of support was that relating to the briefing and preparation of students. Support for the finding that preparation and briefing of students was inadequate and deserves greater attention can be found in the results to Questions 5, 9, 13, 16 and 19. The discussion of this very important aspect is deferred to Section 5.11.1 where the results of the interview data will be incorporated. The finding that feedback is a very important concern for students (next in ranked importance) lends support to the findings made in other questions where lack of feedback was considered to be a major item of concern in the programme (Cf Questions 13, 16, 18 and 20). Likewise, a discussion of the role of feedback will be discussed in the same section for the same reasons.

The next most important suggestion (in terms of level of support) was that host institutions should be better briefed by the library school about the requirements of the library school and the educational needs of the students. One student pointed out the reciprocal benefits of such a briefing

session : the host institutions could explain what they expected of students.

A number of suggestions clustered around improvement of the programme in terms of activities planned for the students. Major related aspects of this category were :

- better articulation between tasks assigned and curriculum
- better balance between tasks with educational value and routine tasks of use to the host institution
- more input and choice by students in drawing up of programme of activities
- library school should ensure that a reasonably uniform programme of activities is offered to each student
- better match between tasks and intellectual ability and interest of student
- the activities should offer genuine growth and experiential learning, not just practice

This finding can be compared to the results to Questions 13, 16 and 17 all of which support this conclusion.

A significant number of students (10 or 23,8%) would like to see a longer fieldwork programme, although the qualification was made by three of these students that they would like to spend more time on an improved programme.

Five students reported that the timing of the programme could be improved, although only one student made a concrete suggestion, viz. that the fieldwork should be continuous, e.g.

an afternoon a week. (Cf the positive correlation of the results of Question 25 with the discussion in Section 5.11.)

Question 26. "If there is any aspect of the fieldwork programme not covered in the questionnaire that you would like to comment on, please do so." There were only two responses to this question, neither of them related. Such a limited pattern of response prohibits generalization.

It might be noted from the analytical discussion of the questionnaires responses that there are recurrent themes and repetitive responses. These allow for correlation and another reason for this is that the researcher incorporated checks in the questionnaire in order to enhance its validity, a standard practice in questionnaire design (Cf *inter alia* Babbie, 1973; Blalock, 1970; Oppenheim, 1973)

5.8 Analysis of the interview

The reasons for the selection of the interview as a supplementary method of data collection and its design have been fully discussed in Section 4.18.2. The interview schedule is attached as Appendix 3. The data derived from the interviews and their analysis have permitted the researcher to extend the analytical discussion of the two cases in the following ways :

- by confirming the salience and relevance of some of the concepts to emerge from the analysis of the questionnaires

- by allowing the researcher to develop, extend and interpret some of the earlier findings in the light of further evidence
- by allowing the researcher to formulate and develop concepts emerging from the new data that are thematically related to concepts but only tangentially referred to in the preceding analytical section
- by confirming some of the conclusions made based on evidence from the questionnaires

Although all of the interview data have been systematically analysed in the manner described in Sections 4.20 *et seq*, the researcher decided not to report the results of the responses to each question sequentially, but rather to employ the framework outlined in the preceding paragraph to isolate relevant concepts and themes and to focus discussion on these as a means of integrating the findings in the two analytical sections (*viz.* the questionnaires and the interviews). The reasons for the decision to concentrate on a limited number of significant issues are two-fold :

- The abundance of data and the resultant desire not to inflate the volume of the thesis by reporting every single response - an approach that would have necessitated the conceptualization and formulation of an ever increasing number of categories, some with an ever diminishing salience.
- Because the interview, as designed for this purpose, was not as structured as the questionnaire, the effect has been for some thematically related responses to be

scattered among the questions. By adopting a thematic approach, the researcher has avoided fragmentation thus being able to integrate the results of the questionnaires and the interviews.

5.9 Professional socialization

An analysis of the questionnaires identified a number of issues that are worthy of further investigation because they emerged as salient and significant factors in the interview data. The question of socialization is one such prominent feature. Another reason for paying some attention to this question is that very little research has been done on the professional socialization of library and information workers, and even less attention has been paid to the role of practitioners in anticipatory socialization (Cf Section 2.4.5.4). Professional socialization and anticipatory socialization have been defined and discussed in an earlier section (Cf Section 2.4.5.4) and reference to the importance of the concept in the fieldwork programme has been discussed in the conceptual analysis of fieldwork (Cf Sections 3.6 and 3.7.3).

Occupational sociologists have identified the two major authority figures in professional education and socialization, viz. "the instructors [ie. lecturers] within [the professional school] and the practitioners outside" (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978 : 437). In the case of fieldwork, the role of the practitioners is crucial, and provides one of the foci of interest in this study. There has been no attempt to assess

the relative importance of these two categories of agents, however, because the data do not permit such comparison. The intention is rather to investigate the preliminary effects of the fieldwork programme on anticipatory socialization and to determine the relative potency of the factors thus identified.

The following framework of analysis has been adopted for the discussion of professional socialization in this context :

- identification of professional values and attitudes by students (since professional socialization implies the transmission of professional attitudes)
- positive effects of socialization
- negative effects of socialization
- mechanisms of socialization

5.9.1 Professional attitudes

It is quite clear that professional values and attitudes are mediated through the roles and norms of the library school and that these were sometimes consistent with and sometimes different from institutionalized norms and practice encountered by students during the fieldwork programme.

In general, professional beliefs and ethical orientation appeared less well defined to students in the field than the structural and functional attributes of library and information science as a profession. (Cf the finding emerging from Question 3 in the questionnaire that the issue of professional values was not adequately covered in the fieldwork programme). This finding was supported by the

evidence of the interview data when the question was posed whether students had been exposed to professional values and attitudes. In many of the cases the question had to be explicated and exemplified, suggesting that there had been limited awareness of direct and immediate impact at the time. There is very little evidence of direct transmission of professional values via instruction by the supervisors and other members of staff. The mode of transmission was indirect : through observation by students of actions and behaviour of those with whom they came into contact. This confirms the researcher's claim made in the conceptual analysis of professional education (in which the role of professional socialization is discussed) that there is no clearly defined consensual framework of values held by library and information workers (Cf Section 3.7.3).

A few students who answered the question without hesitation prefaced their responses with such comments as, "I thought at the time", or; "It struck me then", indicating an awareness experienced at the time of the reported incident : this effect was apparent in four students.

When questioned about the manifestation of professional attitudes that they had encountered, the students' varied responses provided a constellation of related aspects. There was consensus in identifying the following correlates of professionalism :

- possession of knowledge and skills
- technical competence
- high commitment to work
- interest in and enthusiasm for work
- orientation to service
- promotion of the service, the organization and the profession

Many of these are acknowledged dimensions of professionalism (Cf Hoyle, 1980 : 44; and Section 2.3). Parsons, for example, has identified technical competence as "one of the principal defining characteristics of professional status and role" (1939 : 46).

It is noteworthy that students isolated commitment as an indicator of professionalism. Coser and Rokoff define commitment as "the positive involvement of internal dispositions" and argue that commitment to a profession involves commitment to one's work and one's colleagues (1971 : 547). Four students observed that the act of hosting and teaching students during the fieldwork programme is itself a measure of commitment to the profession, and an act of professionalism in that it promotes the interests of the profession by contributing to the education of initiates. For these students this was a very prominent feature of professionalism.

Attitudes that students identified as incompatible with professionalism included the following :

- lack of interest in the work
- negative comments about the profession or the employing organization
- perceived cavalier or negligent attitude towards users
- "dumping" of tasks on students so as to avoid having to do them
- bureaucratic orientation
- negative attitudes towards peers, subordinates and students

The impact that exposure to and observation of these negative correlates of professionalism will be discussed in Section 5.9.4 under the heading of negative effects of socialization.

5.9.1.1 Positive effects of socialization

5.9.1.2 Career relevance

It is appropriate to discuss the career relevance that emerged as a strong feature of the programme under the heading of socialization. For a large number of students the programme reaffirmed, modified or disconfirmed their career plans (Cf the results of Question 9 in the questionnaire). This finding is supportive of Jordaan's concepts of "vocational exploratory behaviour" in which exploratory experiences are critical in career decision making (1963). In Case A the reality factors were partly instrumental in helping students confirm their choices by means of reality testing. Although the category of "reality", a salient descriptor in the interview and in the questionnaire responses, is conceptually (and, in this case, also empirically) linked to other factors in positive

socialization, it is highlighted in this discussion because of the significance attached to it as a concept by students (12 students isolated it as a separate and significant category).

5.9.2 Encounter with reality

The fieldwork experience was important because it offered the first opportunity for students to raise questions about the worth of what they were doing by attempting to relate the activities to a professional ideology and to assess whether they could envisage themselves in a future career. It allowed them to check their expectations and image of the career against reality and gain an awareness of the demands, rewards and satisfactions involved. The action environment provided a bridge between the world of actual practice and academic study. (Cf results of Question 2 and 4 whose results are supported by the findings of the interview data.)

The importance of this aspect of anticipatory socialization is reflected in the following observation of one of the students :

I learned what library and information science is about. I didn't have a clue. I only knew the public library as a user. I didn't know what you had to do if you worked there.

5.9.3 Negative effects of socialization

Some students reported, however, being exposed to negative attitudes or behaviour that they regarded as inconsistent with professionalism. The difficulty in discerning the total impact of such exposure is to determine the actual extent of

students' encounters with negative attitudes, behaviour and the like because those students, with a more negative disposition towards the programme, might be more inclined to report such incidents than students with more positive attitudes. In the absence of an instrument or checklist against which students would have been able to record or describe such negative manifestations, the researcher is obliged to rely on the data at her disposal, but to bear in mind the problems identified above.

It is instructive to examine the ways in which these students accommodated the perceived dissonance in values which could, according to Schein, lead to over-conformity, deviation, termination of career plans or healthy adaptation (1967 : 619). In all the cases except one, there were successful attempts to accommodate the negative effects (although students exposed to negative attitudes and behaviour tended to have lower attitude indices on the attitude scale). The following pattern of management of perceived dissonance emerged from the interview responses :

- by resolving to pursue their careers in environments more compatible with their values (3 students)
- by negative role modelling, i.e. they isolated aspects of behaviour or personality manifestations that they would be careful to avoid (3 students)
- by transforming a potentially negative experience into a positive learning outcome (2 students, one of whom also used the preceding strategy)

- by disengagement from the situation (3 students, 2 of whom scored the lowest on the attitude scale)
- by alienation (1 student)

In four cases, (which comprise the last two categories listed) the students' judgment was uniform across the different sites, or the overall negative effect was more potent than the potential countervailing effect of some positive experiences. The effect on these students was that of reality shock, a dysfunctional socialization effect which is the result of the discontinuity between the students' preparation for professional practice and their actual encounter (Cf Becker et al, 1961; Olesen & Whittaker, 1968 and Schein, 1967). Two of these students questioned their ability to identify with the profession in the light of their dominant impressions but suspended judgment and decided to continue with their career plans. The direct quotations illustrate the effects of disengagement or alienation :

Librarians are always complaining about not being treated like professionals. But they don't behave like professionals. That was my feeling throughout. I felt that they were sceptical and superior about users. I couldn't identify and felt out of things.

In all cases professional values is a tiresome concept and belongs in the library school where it can't interfere with libraries [an ironic interpretation by the student of librarians' attitudes to the issue]

It confirmed I don't want to be a librarian. I can use the skills and knowledge I've learned but I don't want to apply them in that environment. The people I met and worked with - to them it was just a 9-5 job, no excitement, no motivation. I had one experience that finished me. I could never

work in an organization like that. Librarianship is not only techniques and operations - it's supposed to be a service to people. But where's the human element? And also political problems ...The institutional environment mirrors the status quo. I found the environments very incompatible with my ideas.

The source of dissonance in these four cases seems to be a conflict of values and hostile relationships between students and supervisors or "significant others", a finding consistent with Van Maanen's conclusion that negative outcomes are more likely when relationships between supervisor and the supervised are poor (1976). The last extract is quoted at length to convey the sense of alienation experienced by this student which she attributes directly to the encounters during the fieldwork programme. In this extreme case, the fieldwork programme acquainted the student with role demands, and she felt unable to fit the role expectations and requirements which were at variance with her expectations and values. Unable to tolerate the discrepancy, she changed career plans.

A key question prompted by the occurrence of such a negative and unintended consequence as total alienation is how the library school can counter the effects of dissonance of values. A tentative solution is offered in the final section dealing with recommendations (Cf Chapter 8).

5.9.4 Mechanisms of socialization

The available interview data, coupled with the results of the analysis of the questionnaires, suggest a variety of mediating

agents in the process and a far from homogeneous response to these factors.

One of the apparent mechanisms in positive socialization was an exposure to and observation of the positive attitudes, enthusiasm and involvement of the librarians. The following quotations echo the observations of many students who were favourably influenced by these manifestations :

Enthusiasm and enjoyment I thought indicated that they were professional. They communicated their enthusiasm to me. You can feel from that how they relate to their job. They're keen to show you things - you realize it's not just another chore.

I was aware of a sense of mission.

Every department we went to said, "This is the best department to work for" - they were so enthusiastic

The observation of expert delivery of service and high standards of performance seemed also to play a role in the positive socializing process. Students who encountered high levels of expertise and competence, and the performance of tasks and work that was challenging reported feeling "impressed" and encouraged.

Conversely, assigning too many boring or trivial jobs might interfere with the successful socialization process by distorting the view that students have of the types of tasks associated with being professionally qualified and also having the function of discontinuity between the formal programme at the library school and the training programme in fieldwork.

This is the first occasion that students are introduced to the type of work that they will be doing daily or weekly in their future careers. Breet and Locke, sociologists of work, have argued that those wishing to understand professional socialization should focus close attention on the repetitive demands work makes on people and on the ways in which they can adjust to these demands (1965).

Becker and Carper identify the mastery of skill via practice as an important mechanism in the development of a professional identity (1955 : 297). Likewise, Bucher and Stelling conclude from their study of trainee professionals that the sense of mastery that is so central to becoming a professional is acquired through role-playing, i.e. performing those tasks that trainees perceive to be part of the professional role. "What matters is what trainees are doing vis-à-vis what they see professionals doing" (1977 : 270).

Attitudes about the profession, mediated through a perception of the type of work involved, already start to form in this early exposure as is clearly demonstrated by the evidence in this study. The following direct quotations (out of a total of 11 on this theme in the interviews) illustrate the effect of the kind of activities and tasks performed :

You shouldn't have to stamp books all the time because it doesn't link up with theory. It puts you off.

Stamping books and shelf reading does not give you a good idea of librarianship. There must be more to it.

Opening letters for an entire morning because somebody's absent is not my idea of introducing students to the profession.

Many other students (in addition to these quoted) also were assigned tasks such as filing, shelving and the like but accepted them because the balance was not in favour of clerical tasks. (Cf the results of Question 13 where students identified the assignment of irrelevant or boring tasks as a major weakness of the programme.)

5.9.5 Students' role

An examination of the mechanisms involved in the socialization process leads to the question of the definition of the students' role in the programme which was a concept that the researcher sought to investigate via the interviews because of its relevance in the socialization process. There were two broad definitions that emerged in response to this question as posed in the interview schedule :

- definition of the role as student, with varying shades of qualification and interpretation
- definition of the role as colleague or peer

The categories are not mutually exclusive as the above classification might suggest. It was clear from the students' responses that their role differed from placement to placement, with some coincidental features. The role of student was viewed variously as "only a student" (with an implied lowly status), or as a learner but treated as an equal. This latter category carried positive overtones in

that the 15 students who described their role thus emphasized the active aspects of being a learner and the positive gains of learning. The category of colleague, which was variously described as "new recruit" or "novice colleague" also incorporated the idea of learning and "being shown the ropes". On the whole, the 10 students who were conscious of a sense of collegiality and the 15 students who described their role as an active learner responded more favourably to these definitions of their role, than the students who felt that they were treated as "mere students". What distinguished the role of the former two categories from that of the "mere" student was that it allowed them opportunities for making a positive contribution. One student aptly summarized this situation thus :

I was also a co-worker. I was not only a student as I could contribute because I know things.

Welcoming students and treating them as novice professionals had the effect of involving students in a sense of a professional community. The following representative quotations (of 13 statements classified in this category) convey this aspect :

The librarians were part of a professional body : they all had the sense that they belonged to it and that I would join it one day.

I was pleased when the host librarians said, "You are going to be one of us." They welcomed me because I was a future colleague - a novice colleague. It was a welcome to the professional community.

In these cases the students were, nonetheless, aware of boundaries between students and staff which they accepted as the novice/expert divide. Many of them were conscious of their transitional phase between studenthood and qualification as a professional, recalling Turner's concept of liminality (1970). His notion of liminality in *rites de passage* is a useful analytical tool in understanding the role of the student in the programme. *Rites de passage* are defined as "rites that accompany every change of place, state, social position and age" (Turner, 1970 : 356) and can denote entry into a new achieved status (1970 : 357). Turner's concept of liminality which extends Van Gennep's definition (1960) refers to the threshold of the rite of passage, i.e. when the "passenger" is in a transitional stage between one side and another. In the instance of fieldwork, students were poised between the threshold of studenthood and qualified status as a professional.

Ten students reported that their role was that of being only a student with limited capabilities and status. In five extreme cases where students reported being treated as "mere" students of lowly status, this had the effect of marginalizing them and their contributions. The terminology with which they described some of their experiences is very revealing :

I was just dumped (2 students)

I was shunted around (2 students)

They distanced themselves from me (1 student)

The other significant effect of defining their role as that of "only a student" was that it emphasized their dependence on the supervisory and other staff and reduced the possibilities for independence. Four students reported that their role was "to sit and listen to the supervisor" without comment or any other kind of input.

Such uncollegial behaviour militates against the sense of involvement and participation associated in this investigation with successful socialization. It also raises questions about the possibilities of students' engagement with the situation which would normally ensure positive reactions in contrast to the role of passivity suggested by these descriptors. The first four students whose terminology has been quoted have attitude indices among the five lowest recorded (viz. 1,56; 2,44; 2,44 and 2,55) while the fifth student scored 3,2 on the attitude index.

5.9.6 Social strategies in socialization

When the researcher discovered through careful sifting of the data, evidence that pointed to an interesting phenomenon in the socialization process, she formulated the concept "mutuality of exchange". Having been alerted to a concept identified and defined by Lacey, she was able to refine the original concept and relate it to research in professional socialization of teachers (Lacey, 1977). His concept of social strategies employed by student teachers proved to be applicable to the researcher's concept of mutuality of exchange and prompted a fruitful line of inquiry into the

phenomenon identified. Lacey's concept challenged Becker's notion of situational adjustment, i.e. the individual turns himself into the individual that the situation demands (Becker, 1964). In his study of medical students Becker reported this effect whereby the students were dominated by the institution which determined conformity of behaviour (Becker *et al*, 1964). Lacey's research showed that student teachers employ other strategies as well, viz. strategic compliance and strategic redefinition. Strategic compliance refers to the strategy whereby the student apparently conforms to the demands and requirements of authority figures but retains reservations about doing so, and strategic redefinition refers to the strategy whereby the student attempts successfully to change the situation by, for example, increasing options available (1977 : 67-68). It is this strategy that was identified and labelled tentatively "mutuality of exchange" by the researcher because the data suggested that the supervisors were also influenced by the students.

There is ample evidence in the current investigation of mutually interactive effects of socialization which showed that students successfully interacted with their supervisors and influenced the way in which the programme was implemented. Students were not only themselves influenced in various ways by supervisory and other staff during the fieldwork programme, but they in turn exercised an influence. This was manifest in two areas :

- students had an influence on the institution
- students tried to exercise some control over the direction that the programme was taking

Ten students reported that they had been able to contribute concretely to the host institution's activities by performing particularly useful tasks. For these students the opportunity to make an active and valuable contribution to the host institution's programme was perceived as a personal gain and they all welcomed a chance of being useful in some measure to the host institution for the time and effort spent on their behalf. A further three students reported that library staff were keen to learn about the latest curricular developments and that they were happy to share this information with them.

Students tried to influence the course of the programme in a variety of ways. Many of them questioned what they were asked to do and tried to question what they encountered. They initiated further learning by asking questions about aspects or relevance of the task in an attempt to find coherence and logic in the practical situation, or to arrive at an "operational rationale", to use Hirst's apt term (1983(a) : 17). One student commented that the most important question any student should ask in a fieldwork programme is, "Whose interests are being served by these procedures?"

In many cases, they took a proactive stance and mentioned to the supervisor those areas of interest that they would like to follow up. This was an important means by which they could

have some input into the programme and it was successful where the supervisors were responsive to their expressed needs and made the requisite adjustments to the programme.

The strategies adopted by these students support Lacey's finding that students sometimes attempt to redefine the situation in the process of socialization (1977). These findings are supported by further data in the interview schedule, viz. in the final question which required students to give advice to a hypothetical newcomer to the class (Cf later discussion in Section 5.12.)

In summary, the difference between the two definitions of the students' role can be located along the pole of bilateral exchange, the preferred relationship, to that of unilateral authority, the less productive.

5.9.7 Conclusions about professional socialization

From the available evidence, the researcher concludes, in summary, that while the fieldwork programme did have some influence on the socialization process, this effect and the mechanisms that mediate it, cannot be unambiguously clarified, because of the the following differential factors that students brought with them to the programme :

- motivation
- skills
- expectations
- abilities
- affective dispositions

It has not been possible from the available data to determine the effect of these factors on the students' differing responses to difficult or adverse conditions. The available evidence does, however, suggest, that students differ in their capacity to respond to unfavourable conditions such as hostile relationships or dismissive attitudes of those in authority. The process of transmission of professional values and the early formation of professional identity cannot therefore be viewed as a simple transfer, a finding supported by researchers in teaching education (Cf Becher & Ade, 1977; Zeichner & Grant, 1981) and researchers in medical education (Cf Bucher & Stelling, 1977; Olesen & Whittaker, 1968).

5.10 Learning in the programme

In this section the researcher has attempted to assess the outcomes of the programme in terms of learning which is defined in the following way :

In its broadest sense, learning can be defined as a process of progressive change from ignorance to knowledge, from inability to competence, and from indifference to understanding (Fincher, 1985 : 65).

Having addressed the issue of professional socialization and the significant learning in that area, this section concentrates on those learning outcomes not already discussed under that rubric.

In assessing the learning outcomes, the researcher adopted the research position of the "Gothenburg perspective" which has

become very influential since the mid-1970s in research into higher education (Entwistle & Marton, 1984 : 212). The perspective developed at Gothenburg University (cf discussion in Section 4.16.1) focuses attention on the experience of the learner from his/her point of view. This presupposes a shift from a quantitative approach (e.g. measuring by volume or units the amount of material retained) because "the learner experiences content as well as process more as a 'what' or 'how' than 'how much'" (Marton, 1981 : 180). Their conception of learning has challenged the notion of learning as a mere accretion of elements of knowledge and has developed a rigorous qualitative methodology which does not depend on large samples but which has allowed student learning to be studied systematically (Entwistle & Marton, 1984 : 214). Their research methodology demands that learning be described and analysed in terms of realistic content of everyday tasks (Entwistle & Marton, 1984 : 214) rather than the measurement of how many units of artificially constructed bits of knowledge have been retained, a method used by many researchers. Their perspective and methodology are consistent with the principles of the research design described and adopted by the researcher (Cf Section 4.9.).

In their research, Marton and Säljö distinguished qualitative levels of learning in terms of the manner in which the student herself/himself construes what s/he has learned. The complexity or simplicity of approach will depend critically on the student's approach, i.e. a deep or surface approach identified and described by Marton and Säljö (1976). By the

term "approach" they mean to include both intention of the learner (what the learner is looking for) and process (how that intention is carried out) (Entwistle & Marton, 1984 : 215). The deep approach is characterized by an integration of formal learning with personal experience and a search for meaning (1976 : 7-9), while a surface approach is characterized by the treatment of learning activities as disparate and unrelated, by a factual orientation and by an attitude of unreflectiveness (1976 : 7-9).

The original work of Marton and Säljö has been extended both in Sweden and in the U K with the result that close conceptual relationships between deep and surface approaches have been identified respectively with the categories "atomistic" and "holistic" (Laurillard, 1978; Pask, 1976). Thus it is now common to find the categories closely identified in a surface/atomistic and deep/holistic dichotomy.

The question of learning in the fieldwork programme is discussed under the following headings :

- learning modes
- learning outcomes
- approaches to learning

5.10.1 Modes of learning

The following modes of learning were experienced by all the students :

- by doing ("hands-on")
- by observation
- by direct instruction

The first two mentioned are characteristic modes of experiential learning, viz. direct encounter and mediated experience (e.g. by observation) (Cf Olson & Bruner, 1974 : 128-131, whose model of experiential learning is discussed in Section 3.4.4). There was unanimous appreciation of the opportunity to learn by doing, as long as the task or activity actually afforded an opportunity to learn (Cf Section 5.9.5 and the results of Questions 13, 16 and 17 of the questionnaire which refer to some dissatisfaction with tasks). The mode of direct encounter involved performing tasks which many of the students characterized as "hands on", and interacting with both members of staff and users. The outcomes of this engagement were both cognitive and affective. Actual performance of tasks led to learning in most cases, particularly where it was accompanied by feedback.

Interaction, an important dimension of direct encounter with reality, was a significant factor in learning identified by all the students. Interaction with staff and users and involvement with the situation were instrumental in a number of important learning outcomes, both cognitive and affective. Through interaction, students were able to attain a number of formative goals of education, viz. working with others, an appreciation of different points of view, an appreciation of the importance of interpersonal and communication skills. The

words of the students themselves reflect the significance they attached to this dimension of learning :

It brought out the importance of public relations and interpersonal relations

I saw how people in different departments work and interact

She drew me into the excitement and achievement of answering a reference query telephoned from London

This is a very important consequence of the fieldwork programme, and one which the formal teaching programme on its own cannot convey.

Not all activities, simply because they engage the student in an activity, can be described as learning opportunities. A number of students reported that being over-programmed was counter-productive and interfered with learning (8 students). Their experience points to the paradox of competing demands of order and structure in a programme on the one hand, and flexibility on the other. Although students expressed a unanimous wish for a scheduled programme of activities, a tension emerged between overmanagement and flexibility in the programme in those cases where the students were "moved on" to the next activity whether they had completed a task or not. This overscheduling had the effect of fragmentation and discontinuity (Cf results of Question 13 of the questionnaire). The following quotation is representative of the negative effects on learning of a timetable that dominated and took precedence over other learning requirements :

You were just getting into something which you understood when all of a sudden you had to leave it and go somewhere else

All students appreciated the opportunity to observe professionals in action, and to observe the working of an institution. They all reported learning a lot from looking, listening and observing, as the following two quotations demonstrate :

I looked around, observed what they did, judged what was expected of me and got on with it

It was nice to see librarians being librarians. I had begun to think this is not for me and then at the second placement I thought, "No, I can handle this, this looks a promising line of career to follow"

Those who derived the most benefit from this mode were students whose supervisors directed their attention to certain aspects of the situation or explained the significance of what they were observing. One student described an effective learning situation in which the supervisor spent time with the student who observed him as he conducted his daily tasks. This mode of learning is described as follows in her own words :

He said, "Come with me", and I would walk after him and watch him and he would explain as he did things. It was a good way of teaching. He included me and I learned a lot that way. It was relaxed and it was real.

This description recalls Gearing's concept of the "old hands" leading and teaching newcomers. He conceptualized the interactive relationship as "leading-and-following" (1977 : 198). The teaching method thus described by the student is a striking and literal example of Gearing's concept, and further empirical support for its effectiveness was found in a number of other cases. The appropriateness of this method was reinforced by three other students responding in this category who recommended that students be allowed to spend more time with the supervisor to see how s/he operates "because that is where the theory ties in." Gearing's proposition is that maximum transfer of knowledge and information from old hands to new hands occurs when there is a match between the agendas, pacing, roles and general equivalence of structures (1977 : 198-199). An extreme example of the reverse of the "leading-and-following" concept occurred in three cases where students reported that the "old hands" did not want to teach or show them what had been scheduled in the programme. Two of these students were advised by the supervisor concerned to go to another branch or institution. In these cases transference was low because of avoidance behaviour of the "old hands".

While observation was a very prominent learning mode, it became evident that, as with the previous mode, the mere fact of observation was no guarantee that learning would take place. The mere observation of an activity or an encounter is not always instructive if the learner is unable to perceive the relevance or significance of what is being observed, as the following quotation graphically illustrates :

At the public library I couldn't get the whole picture, there were too many small details. I saw the librarian sitting in the office. I don't know what she was doing there. I was looking but I couldn't tell. Then I felt bad about looking. I could see she was doing paper work. I suppose it was queries and administration, but she didn't tell me about her job.

Observation is an important means of modelling, an important process in socialization and one in which all students participated, to a greater or lesser extent (Davis, 1968).

All of the students received instruction by way of supervisors' explaining or giving information. In a few cases, there was an overload of information that obscured the whole picture. In these cases where there was an over-reliance on didactic discourse, the students commented that the supervisors should be more discriminating about the amount of detail that they try to convey. This unproductive method of teaching was contrasted with a preferred method whereby the supervisor tried to give an overview, or to explain the rationale of a procedure or operation, or to point out the relational aspects. This led to more meaningful learning and was identified by the majority of students as a successful teaching method, as the following representative quotation aptly illustrates :

He tried to explanation not only the operation, but the overall aims, what he was trying to achieve and how. It gave me insight into the whole institution, how it fits into the whole. This is good because otherwise it can be a bitty experience.

The weight of evidence has supported the conclusion that none of the learning modes as identified and described in this section are of themselves sufficient without planning and intervention by supervisors and teachers. Because experience can be random and haphazard students sometimes need guidance in the interpretation of what has been experienced. (Cf Section 2.4.4 which outlines the potential difficulties of experiential learning and suggests ways of optimizing its benefits.)

5.10.2 Learning outcomes

The learning outcomes identified in this programme can be classified into a number of broad categories :

- acquisition of substantive knowledge
 - * cognitive gains, e.g. application and integration of knowledge, comprehension
 - * disciplinary knowledge
- interpersonal skills
- technical skills
- growth in insight, development of new perspectives
- developmental outcomes, e.g. growth in confidence

From the accumulated evidence it has been possible to distinguish the following cognitive gains which were, however, by no means uniformly or successfully acquired in equal measure by all students :

- application of concepts taught in class
- comprehension of facts and principles

- extension of the formal curriculum via the learning of new principles, approaches etc.
- acquisition and practice of skills
- reinforcement of material learned in class by locating it in an operational environment
- integration of theory and practice

The cognitive gains ranged from the simple level of factual acquisition of knowledge and skills to more complex reasoning and synthesis. Students reported a considerable gain in substantive knowledge of library and information science and practice. These cognitive gains related either to the acquisition of new knowledge - an extension of the course - or to the ability to apply knowledge in a practical environment (11 students).

A few representative quotations illustrate the kinds of learning identified above :

I learned a different way of classifying children's books which works well

I learned about different levels of service and was able to discriminate the different roles and functions of different types of libraries as we learned in Management

The fieldwork showed me the relevance of what we'd learned in class

A significant amount of this learning could not easily have taken place in the classroom because of the clearly experiential nature of these gains which are consistent with

the typical outcomes of experiential learning identified by Little (1981).

Students referred frequently and prominently to their growth in insight which was mediated through their fieldwork experiences. Although this is not conceptually a distinct category because of its association with both cognitive and affective learning outcomes, it is isolated here for discussion because of its salience as a concept both in the questionnaire and the interview responses. It is a cognitive gain because of its association, in Bloom's typology (1956) with an increase in comprehension (Cf discussion in Section 2.3); and with affective learning outcomes because it is often accompanied by an attitudinal shift. (Cf results of Question 2 in the questionnaire for empirical support for this association.) Because students referred so frequently and insistently to the concept of "insight", this outcome has been isolated for discussion although it is bound up with both cognitive and affective gains.

The concept was isolated by 15 students as an important aspect of learning. The gains reported related largely to the appreciation of the significance of that aspect of professional knowledge termed by Jamous and Peloille as indeterminacy, as opposed to technicality (1970). By technicality they refer to those aspects of professional work that are characterized by codified procedures and that can be transmitted via explicit transmission. By indeterminacy is meant those dimensions of knowledge that are tacit and not

amenable to codification. This dimension of knowledge is implicit and not governed by expressed rules (1970). In the case of technicality, these aspects have to be mastered by practice and application. In the case of indeterminate knowledge, the student has to pick it up and observe and try to follow (Anderson, 1976 : 231). Their category of indeterminacy, as specifically related to professional knowledge, recalls Polanyi's description of tacit knowledge (1962; cf Section 2.4.3 for Polanyi's influential theory of tacit or personal knowledge). The following representative observations illustrate this aspect of professional knowledge that the students became aware of :

I realized that even in pretty limited circumstances (in a poor public library branch) much can be achieved if the librarian is motivated and efficient, as my supervisor was. This was in spite of what I had heard - that public libraries don't have a good image.

I realized that the force of personality of the librarian was very important in that situation [an industrial library] because she had to communicate to management the value of her service. Her ability to communicate this and to communicate with people was more important than the usual library skills.

One aspect that struck me about the librarians at the public library was their great knowledge of the community and how they serve the needs and interact with the community. They had many outreach programmes and the library was crowded in the holidays.

Other significant gains in this area relate to the connections students were able to make between professional practice and political, moral and ethical dimensions. This was reported as a major insight by a number of students (9

students). These students were prompted to ask questions about the meaning and purpose of library and information work in the current political situation and how practitioners visualized their role in a future society. In four cases, students were disappointed that professional practice seemed to be remote from and unconcerned by the political and moral dimensions deemed important by students. In one case there was extreme disaffection and extinction of interest on these grounds, already referred to under the heading of socialization (Cf Section 5.9.3).

Other insights reported by students related to an appreciation of constraining factors that upset their theoretical picture of the algorithm of the application of principles to practice. This developing awareness of a relativistic conception of knowledge is consistent with Perry's major finding in his contribution to student learning (1970). In his pioneering investigation into the process of cognitive development of university students, Perry described how students move from a more simplistic, absolutist conception of knowledge to a more relativist and complex conception as they confront reality (1970 : 9-10). Their experience of the interface between theory and practice shows a different picture in many ways from that built up during the course of academic study. Perry arrived at his conclusions by studying the data derived from semi-structured interviews with students, which he argued to be a superior method for research into student learning, than experimental or psychometric methods. His research has become the classic of student learning and is widely cited for the

significance of its findings and as an exemplar of a qualitative research design.

There are a few striking examples of this evolution of students' knowledge in the current investigation which are identified here by the researcher because they confirm and exemplify Perry's widely cited research findings. The students' own observations in this category (from a total of 9 students identifying this effect) aptly describe this evolution :

I discovered that theory is not only what is taught in class, it comes out different in a library because administrative and other staff problems can become obstacles

It showed that theory has limitations and can't answer all situations that we came across

I realize that different situations generate different demands and you can't simply apply rules

The learning outcomes identified and discussed in the preceding paragraphs recall Bruner's learning concept of discovery which is characterized by the learner's productive use of experience to generate new knowledge and insights (as opposed to the algorithmic application of principles to practice which is another characteristic mode of experiential learning) (1963; 1966).

Perry's conception of the evolution of a more relativistic conception of knowledge and its empirical exemplars discussed here, can be distinguished conceptually from the phenomenon of

"academic drift" which appears similar. Academic drift is the tendency for subjects to become more advanced, abstract and theoretical and less practical than the subject as practised in agencies where the tendency is for greater practical emphasis and the possible loss of concern for social accountability (Neave, 1979 : 155). A number of students in this study (10 students) identified either a gap between what they had learned in their theoretical studies and what they sometimes saw in practice, or a weak relationship between the two.

The following direct quotations describe the perceived gap between theory and practice :

I was surprised that they didn't apply management principles to their management of staff. I felt that if they had, they would have avoided a lot of trouble. We've learned all about that in Management.

Our theory is too advanced for what I saw in some libraries.

The librarian saw that I was puzzled and said that our theory was too advanced for their library

There is a link [between theory and practice] but the student does not always see it. We have to be guided.

The final quotation has been included because it illustrates an important factor in the apparent discontinuity between classroom and field as experienced by some students. The source of the difficulty identified by students was that their concept of theory was more advanced in some cases than what they observed in practice. The reason for the perceived gap

might be that the relationship was not immediately discernible until the significance and connections had been pointed out by the supervisor. Another possible reason is that suggested by Prytherch based on his research into the fieldwork programme at a British university (1986). He suggested that students might not always be able to appreciate the relationship between theory and practice as they encounter it in fieldwork without the full background of theory which is yet to be provided in their academic studies (1986 : 146). Schein comments on this phenomenon as it emerged in his study of professional socialization (1967). He argues that it happens in the professional teaching programme because the lecturers are concerned to educate the students less for the role as it is currently practised than for the improved role of the future (1967 : 603).

Another factor that might account for the failure by some students to make the connection between theory and practice is that identified by Marton and Svensson, viz. an expectation of finding a theory/practice algorithm, i.e. rules of action based on procedural judgments derived from theory (1978 : 483). A hint of this possibility is reflected in the following quotation which refers to this particular student's belief that a simple application of management principles to staff management would solve all problems that were characteristic of the management as perceived by this student :

All they have to do is apply what they learned
in library management

The link between theory and practice was seen as a major learning outcome by slightly more than 50% of the students (22 students). The following quotations by these students contradict the observations regarding academic drift :

It helps you make connections between concepts and concrete examples. It narrows the gap between theory and practice.

It is important to make connections otherwise studies are too abstract and removed from reality

The following wry comment by a student summarized the link between theory and practice as she experienced it :

Fieldwork gives you a little practical experience in a very theoretical course that's preparing you for a very practical job

5.10.3 Learning approaches

There was a general correspondence between the approaches adopted by the students on their fieldwork programme and the framework of deep and surface learning identified by Marton and Säljö (1976). (Cf Section 5.10 for an explanation of their analysis of student approaches to learning.) The evidence suggests that a particular approach was not consistently adopted by all students all the time. It is not possible to isolate particular groups of students and characterize their approach as consistently surface or consistently deep. The researcher has been unable to establish whether the students' orientations to learning were stable in all contexts because she did not have access to a

complete inventory of every single task and how it was approached.

There is, however, evidence that sometimes some students were so intent on following instructions, that for example, they experienced anxiety about being able to perform the task, a condition termed 'hyperintention' which has been defined by Marton and Säljö as an "extreme form of concentrating on the surface of the presentation, characterized by a failure to learn due to over-anxiety to perform well" (1984 : 41). The results of Question 12 revealed that a significant number of students judged their performance as successful on the assumption that they had been able to follow instructions. These responses reflect a classic example of operation or surface learning which is characterized by an emphasis on procedural rules (Pask, 1976 : 13). A surface approach to learning will be encouraged by a fragmented programme, consisting of rotating students through a series of unrelated hurried tasks, insufficient time or overwhelming detail, without giving them a chance to discover the rationale, underlying principles or relational aspects (conditions reported by a number of students in Section 5.10.1). (Cf also results of Questions 13 and 16 of the questionnaire.)

The adoption of a particular approach appears to be dependent on the context and demands of the situation because the students who adopted the surface approach on those occasions did not manifest a preference for the approach throughout the programme and occasionally adopted a deep approach or

complained that the schedule had the effect of decontextualizing the tasks (Cf results of Question 13). This finding is consistent with the findings of Laurillard who concluded that students' learning styles and strategies are context-dependent and are adopted in accordance with the demands of the situation (1979 : 4).

However, there is also sufficient evidence to indicate the presence of a deep approach to learning in those cases where students were concerned to analyse the situation, their role and that of the institution. Those supervisors who encouraged students to look for connections, who tried to locate particular activities in a broader framework were also encouraging a deep approach. A number of students also initiated learning by actively looking for links between what they had observed or done and the broader picture. Evidence of a deep approach can be seen in those instances where students reported gains in insight and changed perceptions (Cf Section 10.10.2)

The following representative quotations are typical of a deep approach which has been associated by Entwistle (1987 : 11) with a search for understanding :

I looked at management and asked questions and I looked at the community and I tried to relate what was happening in the library to the community. I can understand the importance of routines but you can pick that up quickly.

Fieldwork gave meaning to the course. Students have to look for and construct meaning.

If you go to one placement that is not very constructive or rather negative, you need that experience to compare it with the next. An uninformative experience can be just as informative as one that pours information into students because you can use it to increase your understanding.

Although these quotations have been singled out here to illustrate deep approaches to learning, the various responses by a sizeable number of students both in the questionnaires and the interviews show a remarkable level of reflection and analysis, hallmarks of a deep approach. In the section dealing with recommendations, the researcher makes suggestions for enhancing the opportunities for encouraging deep approaches to learning (Cf Chapter 8).

5.11 Ideal attributes of the fieldwork programme

While the data have permitted an identification and analysis of adverse conditions for learning and socialization in the fieldwork programme (Cf Section 5.9.4) it has not always been possible to attribute reasons for the differing responses to the negative factors. It has, on the other hand, been relatively more easy to identify those conditions and factors to which all students respond favourably. The data have permitted the researcher to identify enabling conditions in the fieldwork programme that facilitate learning and lead to positive socialization outcomes. These have already been identified and commented on throughout the analytical discussion of the results. In addition, the researcher asked students to construct an ideal fieldwork programme by

isolating various elements and asking them to list ideal attributes of these dimensions (Cf interview schedule attached as Appendix 2).

In response to a question in the interview schedule, the students identified roles and responsibilities and ideal characteristics of each constitutive element of the fieldwork programme. In many cases they explicitly referred to the fact that their own positive experiences had played a part in their formulation of the ideal characteristics. With virtually no dissenting opinions the following profile of optimal characteristics and logistical arrangements of a fieldwork programme emerged, confirming, in many instances, the provisional conclusions derived from other data of the researcher regarding conditions that promote learning and positive socialization and foreshadowing, in many other instances, the researcher's recommendations for improvements to the programme. The responses have been grouped around the major elements that were isolated for comment by the students.

5.11.1 The library school

There were 54 statements listing the responsibilities of the library school that the students associated with an ideal programme. Although the classification of the statements could be subsumed under the generic category of communication, greater clarity is achieved if a more detailed analysis is presented.

The consensual opinion was that the major responsibility of the library school is to arrange and control the programme and to establish and maintain contact with host institutions. A major responsibility identified in this question referred to thorough preparation and briefing of students prior to their embarking on the programme (17 students). This finding confirms the results of Questions 9, 13 and 19 of the questionnaire which highlighted the difficulties associated with inadequate briefing of students.

As part of the briefing, many students suggested that more guidance be offered to students as to the range of choices and opportunities available among the placement sites. The point was made that many students have a very limited idea of the scope and dimension of library and information work and have no means of knowing what specific libraries and information centres have to offer that might be relevant to their needs or interests. In the absence of a published list of host institutions and their attributes as a fieldwork site, students have developed an informal network of advice and exchange, relying heavily on advice from each other and students in preceding years, a finding reminiscent of Becker's concept of a negotiated collective perspective (1964 : 28). A minority suggestion (6 students) was that students be allowed to do fieldwork in "alternative" sites, i.e. those not in the charge of qualified librarians. The reason for this is to expose students to alternative career possibilities where their skills might profitably be employed in non-traditional contexts, such as community or alternative organizations with

progressive ideals (Cf Section 2.6.1 which discusses the relationship between the university and the community).

The drawing up and making available of guidelines to the host institution was the category with the next highest frequency rating (16 students). Communication with the student and the host institution during the programme so as to monitor students' progress and the programme itself was identified by 5 students as an activity that should be undertaken by the library school. (Cf results of Question 25.)

This suggestion is linked to the next very prominent role that the students felt the library school might profitably play in the communication process, viz. holding a seminar after the programme so that students might share experiences and learning outcomes. Fourteen students suggested that the library school should organize a seminar at the end of the programme for the purpose of feedback, discussion and sharing of experiences (14 students).

Dissatisfaction with feedback and assessment procedures was a unifying theme in both the questionnaire and interview responses. (Cf results of Questions 13, 15 and 20 of the questionnaire.) A unanimous concern expressed by students was that they had no access to their supervisors' reports and that they would like to know the contents or be given a chance to discuss in broad terms the assessment of their performance.

The comment of one student aptly summarizes the anticipated benefit of greater communication and increased co-operation between library school and host institutions thus :

You can't guarantee a good experience for every student, but with monitoring and feedback you increase your chances

5.11.2 The host institution

There were a total of 54 characteristics of the ideal host institution identified by students. These fell into 2 categories, with 6 statements being unclassifiable. The category with the highest frequency rating referred to a positive attitude towards students and an appreciation of the potential contribution that host institutions could make to their education and training. This attribute was clearly discernible from the 26 statements classifiable in this category as the following representative quotations illustrate :

The host should be prepared and willing to accept students and to accept the responsibility to teach them

They should understand that they are really fulfilling an important purpose, not just keeping students occupied. They should be willing and enthusiastic and realize that it's important because we are future librarians.

They should have a positive commitment to participate on those terms [i.e. terms agreed to by host and library school]

(Cf results of Questions 9, 13, 16 and 25).

The characteristic with the next highest frequency was the planning of a sound, flexible programme of activities in

conjunction with the library school and according to the needs and interests of the students and the curriculum (23 students).

To summarize the profile of an ideal institution as conceptualized by the students : It would be a training-minded institution with a commitment to the advancement of the profession and the means and infrastructure to provide a balanced and educationally relevant programme for students whom it would receive in a positive and welcoming manner.

5.11.3 Programme of activities

This question elicited 61 statements about the characteristics of the ideal programme of activities to be offered by the host institution, of which 58 were classifiable. The category with the highest frequency rating was that the programme should be planned and structured in such a way as to give students an overview of the operation of the institution in order to prepare them for entry into the profession (14 students).

Eleven students referred to an abstract quality of the programme, viz. that it should be flexible, offer choice to students, cater for their interests and offer a variety of activities. Six students felt that the activities should be designed in such a way as to engage students' active participation and interest. Six students identified structure and coherence as desirable attributes of the programme. Two of these students stated the converse of this attribute thus :

They should not start to write it down as you walk in the door - as happened to me at one library

The programme should be structured and clear so that you don't have the librarian coming in and saying, "What are we going to do with you today?"

A number of statements dealt with specifics of the programme such as types of activities to be included or excluded (21 students). The suggestions in this category can be subdivided into the following :

- work with users (10 students)
- not too many clerical, mechanical or menial tasks (8 students)
- some exposure to management principles, via explanation, discussion and observation (3 students)

The following quotation conveys the representative concern to be involved with working with users :

You don't learn much about users if they put you in a back room all the time

5.11.4 Ideal supervisor

There was a voluminous response to the question asking students to identify the attributes of a good supervisor, 117 statements being made of which 115 were classifiable. The fact that the role of the supervisor elicited more statements than any other category in this question is in itself indicative of the importance attached by students to the role of the supervisor in the programme and their relationship with

the supervisor. (Cf results of Question 8 of the questionnaire which reported levels of satisfaction with supervision).

From the responses to this question the researcher has been able to identify dimensions of effective supervisory behaviour from the student perspective. The attribute with the highest frequency rating was approachability and a sympathetic disposition towards students (23 students). One student aptly described the effects of this desirable characteristic :

The supervisor should be open and receptive to students because students feel insecure, self-conscious and apprehensive. A friendly atmosphere can dispel anxieties. It's better than an indifferent or negative response.

The attribute with the second highest frequency rating was that of being a good teacher (21 students). Students subdivided this category into dimensions of good teaching that can be classified as follows :

- instructional skills, e.g. an ability to explain clearly
- knowing how to guide students
- ability to discriminate between what material should be taught and what can be left out

The quality of enthusiasm or being highly motivated was identified by 14 students as a desirable attribute in a supervisor. This would be manifested in an enthusiasm for the profession, for their work and their task of supervision. Twelve students thought that communicative skills were very

important for the effective supervisor. The supervisor would need to be a good communicator both in order to build up a good rapport with students and also to be able to demonstrate to students the importance of good communicative skills when dealing with users and colleagues. Sharing a frequency rating with this attribute was the ability and willingness to give feedback to students (12 students). Four students identified conditions that militated against the supervisor's being in a position to provide meaningful feedback :

- lack of time because the supervisor is too busy
- the nature of the tasks does not require feedback

(Cf the results of Question 20 of the questionnaire which indicate a level of dissatisfaction with the feedback and guidance functions of the supervisor.)

Another highly rated attribute of the good supervisor is the ability to allow the student latitude and a certain amount of independence (11 students). This attribute was often defined in terms of its undesirable oppositional characteristic, viz. being over-vigilant, checking up constantly, "breathing down students' necks", hovering over students and not giving them a chance to "get on with it".

Professional competence and expertise was identified by 8 students as a desirable attribute in a supervisor. Sharing a frequency rating with the preceding category was a requirement of an administrative type rather than a personal or professional quality, viz. that the supervisor should have

time to spend with the students (8 students). A typical comment relating to this requirement is reflected in the following quotation :

They must have time to spend with students
because if students see they're so busy
they'll be afraid to ask questions

The final category was the ability to understand and respond to students' learning and other needs. This attribute incorporated sensitivity and insight so that the supervisor could judge how much the student understood and also an awareness of how much choice would be appropriate (6 students).

What emerges from this composite picture of effective supervisory behaviour is the prominence given to human qualities such as sympathy, enthusiasm and sensitivity. A simple tally of the distribution of attributes according to three broad categories into which the qualities tended to fall reveal the following pattern :

- personal qualities : 66 statements
- pedagogical and professional skills : 41 statements
- other (available time) : 8 statements

These findings are consistent with results reported by other researchers who have attempted to characterize the qualities of the "good teacher" according to students' conception of that role. (Cf Bridges *et al* (1971) and Sheffield (1974) all of whom have reported students' high rating of personal

qualities and positive attitudes of teachers, in comparison to techniques and methods.)

5.12 Advice to a newcomer

The final question in the interview schedule was asked as a final question because it was seen as an opportunity for the students to summarize their experience by way of advising a newcomer to the class of the best way to behave in order to get the most out of the fieldwork programme (Cf Appendix 12 for interview schedule). The idea for this question was drawn from a widely cited paper by Sorenson, who conducted a study of practice teaching by analysing students' responses to this question (1967).

The validity of the question in this case was established by the fact that although it was posed as a hypothetical question, eight students reported that they had already advised other students on certain aspects of the programme based on their own experience. The following response is representative of this group of students :

I have already advised students. I've told them it helps you get a job, helps you make up your mind where you'd like to work. It's the most important component of the course. It provides a meaningful link with the work context. I've told them to take it seriously and to do their best.

The list of 92 responses to this question have been classified and a frequency count made. Two very broad categories emerged :

- advice on maximization of learning opportunities
- advice on relationship with supervisor/host institution

The majority of suggestions fell into the category of how best to utilize the learning opportunities (68 suggestions) while 24 suggestions referred to adaptation to the situation and management of the relationship with the supervisor and others.

The first category can be further sub-divided into a number of strategies that students suggested to optimize learning (the figure in bracket refers to the number of students making the suggestion) :

- make the most of the opportunity, put as much effort into the programme as you can, be positive (17)
- ask questions (13)
- observe, listen (11)
- participate in activities, get involved (11)
- be assertive, make an input into the programme (9)
- prepare yourself for the learning experience (4)
- apply what you've learned in class, integrate theory and practice (3)

The category that has been identified broadly as relationship with supervisor and institution, and adaptation to situation has been sub-divided into further categories as follows :

- be aware of your student role : don't be judgmental (8)
- try and fit in (5)
- be co-operative, do what you're told (4)
- be cheerful (4)
- be careful of your manners and style of dress (3)

From a study of the range of categories, it is clear that there is a distinction between educational concerns, as reflected in the first broad category and "impression management" as reflected in the second broad category. The concept of impression management refers simply to the strategies adopted by individuals to project behaviour and attitudes deemed to be acceptable to others, i.e. managing the impressions that others have of them (Goffman, 1971). This is related to Becker's concept of situational adjustment where individuals assess the demands and requirements of the situation they find themselves in and adjust accordingly (1964). The suggestions which fall into the two broad categories are, in fact, sometimes contradictory.

The dominance of educational concerns in the response to this question is in contrast to the finding of Sorenson's investigation which led him to conclude that the majority of his students were more concerned to "manage" the situation, especially the supervisor, than with learning concerns (1967 : 174). That stance is to be seen in opposition to the majority of students in this case who concentrated their attention on the educational and pedagogical demands of the programme and how best to maximize learning in the programme. The following

representative quotations illustrate the first broad category of learning strategies suggested by the students whose responses fall into this category :

Be observant of every possible situation regardless of how unpleasant it might be because you can learn something from it

Try to work out your own learning objectives and ask if you can do certain things that you would like to

Don't be passive - make the most of every opportunity by participating

Be more assertive if you think, as happened with me, that no programme has been planned - suggest or ask things that you would like to do

The position reflected in the sub-categories identified above and illustrated by these quotations is also associated with attempts to influence the direction of the programme and to exercise some sort of control by being assertive and making suggestions. Even those students who recommend asking questions seem to be suggesting a strategy whereby students can influence the programme in some way by directing attention to areas they would like to explore or by modifying the pace in some way. The asking of questions is also a learning strategy, i.e a way of increasing information and reducing uncertainty.

The second broad category of responses to this question focuses on non-instructional variables and provides some evidence of the phenomenon of strategic compliance (cf explication of this sociological concept in the discussion of

mechanisms of socialization in Section 5.9.6). This response, typical of only a small number of students in the current investigation (11 students who generated 24 statements in this category), is consistent with the behaviour of the students in Sorenson's study (albeit of a majority of students in his study) (1967). Such conformity is an adaptive response to the situation (Lacey, 1977 : 67-68). What is revealing about the responses that fall into this category is that the students construe the situation as requiring a degree of conformity and compliance, and submissive behaviour.

The following group of quotations illustrates the category of strategic compliance :

Be careful and wary : you are the alien

Keep your mouth shut, do what you're told

Supervisors like a friendly, interested manner, they don't like it if you're critical

Don't antagonize them by wanting to do things your way even if you know it's better

Keep your counsel, remember that you are a student

Be like the three monkeys

There might be an association between the advocacy of caution in these cases, and a perception of the importance of the assessment of students' performance although the students themselves did not refer to any overt relationship between the two. While most students were unconcerned about the assessment procedures, a limited number of students expressed anxiety about the evaluative function of the assessment

report. In general students were unaware of the criteria by which they were being assessed and most of them believed that the assessment report was not critical in their final grade. The difference in attitude towards the assessment procedures seems to have been determined by the perception of the salience of the assessment reports and the absence or presence of a critical attitude of supervisors. In other words, their response was determined by the perceived attitude of the supervisor towards the arrangement. Most supervisors referred to the requirements of writing the report but were reassuring and did not make an issue of it or adopt a critical attitude towards the students, as the following quotations suggest :

They did tell me, but they didn't make an issue of it

The supervisor did mention a report but it didn't worry me because I didn't feel as though I was being watched or judged

I knew about it but it didn't worry me. I didn't feel as though I was being judged - the atmosphere was casual and friendly.

This reflects the dominant response of students towards the formal assessment procedures. The minority response was one of anxiety about being assessed. The source of anxiety was uncertainty about criteria being used and a fear that personality differences might colour the judgment of the supervisor. In these cases, too, the supervisor appeared to adopt a more critical or negative attitude towards the students. This response was present in 7 cases. That the response was dependent on the supervisor's attitude towards the assessment was indicated by the fact that a number of

these students reported different responses to the assessment requirement depending on the placement. A selection of quotations representing this position will illustrate the negative consequence of anxiety about assessment procedures :

At one placement I knew I was being evaluated. I felt anxious because they were watching me and the supervisor wasn't interested in me : in fact, she didn't like me.

Some supervisors used their position to make you do what they want. They think that students can't refuse because of the report.

While the formal assessment procedures did exercise a negative influence on a limited number of students in this case as has just been demonstrated, the weight of evidence contradicts the findings of many studies of practice teaching that it has a dominant influence in that it determines conformist behaviour and strategic compliance in response to perceived institutional and authority demands (Cf Hoy & Rees, 1977).

The results of the questions about the ideal fieldwork programme and the advice to the newcomer (which were conceived of as questions allowing students to summarize their experience and opinions) yielded remarkably consistent results. This finding reinforces the conclusion that although the sites were widely different in capacities to receive and teach students, and the conditions and "ecological climate" were very different, yet students developed a "group perspective" with many common and consistent features (Cf Becker *et al*, 1968 : 28). Becker *et al* argue that it is possible to distinguish perspectives that commonly inform a

response and that are discernible in enacted patterns of activity (1968 : 37).

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS OF CASE B

6.1 Conduct of the inquiry

The reasons for the selection of this library school as a comparative case have been advanced in Section 4.16. The description of data collection methods, and the rationale for their selection, has been dealt with in Section 4.18.

The investigation was carried out *in situ* in 1987 after all the students had completed the fieldwork requirements for the year. Questionnaires were distributed to all the students eligible (i.e. who had participated in the fieldwork programme). Fourteen students completed the questionnaires (100% return) and interviews were conducted with all of these students by the researcher. The questionnaires took on average an hour to complete and the interviews lasted on average from 45 minutes to an hour. Four members of staff were interviewed according to the interview schedule designed for this purpose (Attached as Appendix 3.) The respondents included the co-ordinator of the fieldwork programme in the library school, the Head of Department, and the co-ordinator of the fieldwork programme in the university library (who is also a part-time lecturer on the staff of the library school).

Access was granted to :

- all programme documentation (attached as various appendices)

- students' reports of their experience (combining a diary of activities, an evaluation of the host institution and an evaluation of the experience)
- student assessment forms completed by the host institutions
- schedules of activities provided to the students by the host institutions

6.2 Description of fieldwork programme

The library school in this case offers fieldwork as a compulsory and integral part of the courses which it offers, viz. B Bibl and B Bibl (Ed). A permanent member of the academic staff is responsible for the administration of the programme and liaison with the host institutions.

6.3 Different forms of fieldwork

The library school distinguishes between the different forms of fieldwork experience, viz. continuous and intermittent fieldwork experience.

6.3.1 Continuous fieldwork

Third-year students do three weeks' continuous fieldwork in a public library during the mid-year vacation.

6.3.2 Intermittent fieldwork

In their second year, each student does a practical assignment in a library. Working in groups under the supervision of the librarian in the host institution responsible for displays and exhibitions, students are expected to set up a book exhibition

in the library. The objectives are to demonstrate to the students the value of public relations via a marketing communication medium and to allow the opportunity for students to experience group dynamics.

In their final year, students do intermittent fieldwork (totalling 120 hours) in the university library. The periods range from 2 to five hours at a time depending on the students' timetable.

Final year students are also accompanied on a study tour of libraries and information centres in a big city such as Pretoria or Johannesburg. During this tour they learn about a variety of aspects of library and information work so that they might develop a clearer picture of professional practice.

An experimental programme is being developed in conjunction with social work students at the university as part of a student community service. The programme (still in its initial phase) is to plan and administer a library service for patients in a neighbouring hospital.

6.4 Assessment of students' performance

During the different phases of fieldwork, the students' performance in the work situation is assessed in a number of ways. Students are also required to evaluate the experience in terms of criteria laid down by the library school.

6.4.1 Assessment of continuous fieldwork

An assessment report of each student is completed by the host institution, according to criteria and guidelines formulated by the library school. Dimensions assessed include a mix of cognitive, skill and affective aspects, with the supervisor being required to rate the various dimensions according to a scale provided. (The assessment schedule is attached as Appendix 10.)

During the three-week period in the host institution the student completes a report according to detailed guidelines provided by the library school. A mark is awarded to this student project which forms part of the semester mark. (Guidelines for compilation of this report are attached as Appendix 11.) The report consists of two main sections :

- an investigation into the institution and various aspects of its organization and services
- an evaluation of the fieldwork experience at that particular site according to stated criteria

6.4.2 Assessment of intermittent fieldwork

An assessment form is completed by the responsible officer in the library with regard to the display project as a whole and also with regard to each individual student's contribution. A group discussion is held in which the role of display and exhibition work within the context of communication is highlighted.

An assessment form is completed by the supervisors of the various departments in the university library hosting the 4th-year students for the 120 hours' fieldwork programme. The assessment is carried out according to detailed criteria and a rating scale devised by the library school. (The assessment schedule is attached as Appendix 12.) In an effort to achieve rater consistency and valid ratings, the co-ordinator of the university library fieldwork programme discusses and exemplifies the criteria with the supervisors in the briefing session.

Students are required to evaluate each aspect of the programme against a variety of stated criteria (Cf Appendix 16). The co-ordinator of the university programme encourages them to take a critical view of practices observed and the learning experience itself. She sees the evaluations as providing mutual learning experiences for both the students and the library. There is thus a high degree of reflexivity in the evaluation and assessment procedures and the university library is receptive to feedback from the students.

The diagnostic value of the assessments is appreciated - the library school uses them as guidance for the students rather than as definitive judgments of their capabilities. A group seminar is held at the end of the fieldwork periods during which the fieldwork programme is analysed in the light of students' evaluations of their experiences and the hosts' assessments of students are discussed in broad detail so as to provide feedback of a general nature.

6.5 Communication

6.5.1 Student briefing

Students are advised by the fieldwork co-ordinator about the aims, objectives and value of fieldwork. They are helped in their third year to choose a suitable host institution (a public library). They are issued with a comprehensive briefing document (Appendix 13) which describes and explains the fieldwork programme under the following headings :

- aims and objectives
- achievement of aims and objectives
- forms of fieldwork
- assessment of students
- students' evaluation of the fieldwork

6.5.2 Communication with host institutions

A letter is sent to the host institution asking it to receive a student (or students). Clear guidelines are made available outlining the needs of the student and the programme. Requirements regarding the assessment of the student and the evaluation report by the student are detailed. Assessment forms accompany the letter (Attached as Appendix 14).

6.5.3 Briefing within the university library

The co-ordinator of the university library programme regards seriously the responsibility that practitioners have with respect to the professional education of librarians and tries to convey her commitment to this principle to the supervisors.

The supervisors are thus carefully briefed and motivated by the co-ordinator of the programme. The briefing session is accompanied by a briefing document providing a conceptual approach to the role of fieldwork in education and training, and outlining aims and objectives (Attached as Appendix 17). The document refers in detail to the guidelines for fieldwork as formulated by the Committee of Education and Research of SAILIS (SAILIS, 1987).

This approach reflects an important educational principle (Berman & Laughlin, 1977). An investigation by Berman and Laughlin into factors affecting the successful implementation of new programmes was that an important determinant of success is that supervisors experience a sense of efficacy and contribution to students' learning (1977).

In conclusion, it can be stated that two important variables in the implementation of the programme were the briefing of supervisors and their degree of engagement with and commitment to the programme, and the briefing of the students by the lecturer.

6.6 Analysis of the programme

With this description of the configuration of the various elements of the fieldwork programme as background, the following analysis will centre around the three weeks' experience in the 3rd year and the programme in the 4th year in the university library, as these forms of fieldwork are

comparable with the types of fieldwork offered in Case A, and conform to what is commonly understood to be fieldwork.

The programme will be analysed in terms of the following main categories :

- aims of the programme
- implementation of the programme
- indicators of success (from the perspective of the library school)
- students' response and attitudes to the programme

In the first three categories the programme is analysed from the perspective of the library school and the host institutions. The data were derived from the following sources :

- programme documentation
- interviews with lecturers and the co-ordinator of the university library programme
- questionnaires sent to host institutions (Cf note in Section 5.5 regarding the handling of the analysis of these questionnaires)
- student reports of their activities

The data sources in the final category were :

- student questionnaires
- student interviews
- student projects and evaluative exercises

6.6.1 Aims of the programme

The aims of the fieldwork programme (as communicated to the students in the briefing document) are articulated as follows :

- the broadening of academic knowledge
- the development of a professional identity

These aims are to be achieved in the following ways :

- for students to come into contact, in a directed way, with the organization and services of libraries and information centres
- for students to be placed in a work situation in which theoretical knowledge can be applied in practice
- the student's achievement in the work situation is evaluated in a reliable way

Other data sources, viz. interviews with library school staff, revealed in greater detail the educational rationale and the "theory of action" of the programme (Patton, 1978 : 182). The primary aim is the integration of theory and practice. This cognitive aim is standard in most fieldwork programmes and the most frequently cited aim in the literature (Cf Section 3.3).

Affective aims were also identified as very important by the lecturers who believed that the programme should have not only an academic and practical aspect, but that a broader goal of inculcation of professional values and attitudes should be envisioned. The programme was seen as having a broader experiential base than the mere acquisition, practice and

refinement of skills which could be measured at the level of specific objectives and incorporated by means of instructional design. This consensual aim was variously expressed as :

- "to instil professional attitudes and values"
- "to experience the milieu of library and information work"
- "to experience interpersonal relationships"
- "to experience the organizational climate of the library"
- "to experience a diversity of norms and values so that they can identify those that are consistent with their own frame of values"
- "to get an idea of the political, moral and social dimensions of professional practice in South Africa"

A secondary aim mentioned was that the department could learn from these encounters, e.g. by way of reports of advanced techniques or new approaches. Such input could be fed back into the theoretical component of the course.

6.6.2 Implementation of the programme

Section 4.17.2 discusses the value of analysing process variables in a programme. For findings presented in Section 6.6.2, 6.6.3 and 6.6.4 the researcher relied on data from interviews with library school staff and the co-ordinator of the university library programme, and programme documentation.

6.6.2.1 Third-year programme

The fieldwork programme for all students is located in a public library. B Bibl Ed. students are also required to spend time in a school library.

The programmed activities in the 3rd year programme included :

- administrative tasks
- book selection
- cataloguing and classifying
- children's work
- circulation work
- literature searches
- reference work
- shelf-reading and shelving of books
- withdrawals of stock

Each student was put in the charge of a supervisor (a qualified librarian) to whom s/he was responsible and whom s/he could approach with questions and problems. Because the class of students is usually small, communication between the library school and the host institutions is easy because of the limited number of institutions involved. Moreover, when and if problems occur, the library school communicates directly with the institution involved in order to resolve any issue that needs attention.

6.6.2.2 Fourth-year programme

A singular and very productive relationship exists between the library school and the university library, which has been

strengthened by the appointment of the co-ordinator of the fieldwork programme in the university library as a part-time lecturer in the library school. Because of the close relationship between the library school and the university library (partly as a result of shared roles and shared projects), there is a high rate of commitment to the programme by the lecturing staff and the co-ordinator of the programme. This has led to the secure institutionalization of the programme in the university library.

The students in the 4th-year programme rotated through the various departments and sections of the university library. The programme planning was very explicit. Detailed objectives were set which were appropriate and relevant to the learning opportunities available in each section and department. (Cf Appendix 15.)

Specific activities that all the students were engaged in included the following :

- administrative tasks
- bibliographic searches
- cataloguing and classifying
- circulation and other statistics
- circulation work
- handling and controlling periodicals
- ILL inquiries on SABINET
- inquiries on the computerized catalogue
- ordering and receiving of new material
- reference work

While the responsibility of the organization to the education and training of students is a powerful motivating force in the case of the university library, the co-ordinator stressed that the host institution also benefited from the relationship. The most important benefit was the opportunity to recruit students for future employment coupled with the realization that if the library was presented as a dynamic and pleasant environment in which to work, the chances would be increased that students would want to seek future employment there. Successful recruiting had already resulted from the hosting of students in the fieldwork programme. (A student in the 3rd year had also been recruited for employment in the public library during her fieldwork).

6.6.3 Problems

The demands in terms of time and energy required on the part of the hosts and participating librarians were seen by lecturers as a problem, for which there is no easy solution. The time available for the programme was also regarded as a limiting factor. Again there is no easy solution to this problem because the whole academic programme is constrained by the amount of time available.

6.6.4 Role of the library school

The role of the library school was clearly defined by the lecturers. Planning with personnel from the host institutions was accorded a high priority. In general, the library school sees its responsibility as formulating clear guidelines for

the host institution and as explaining to them what they can expect of students..

Another responsibility identified was that the library school should inform the host institutions of curricular developments in order that the latter might accommodate the changes in their programme, where possible. The ideal programme will be that designed in consultation with the host institution. In this respect, there was a high level of consultation between the university library and the library school in the design of the 4th-year programme. Proximity, ease of access and the close relationship facilitated this co-operation. While this is more difficult with the other host institutions there has been consultation and liaison at a personal level with the aim of explaining and clarifying the purpose of the fieldwork programme. The fieldwork programme is seen as an important means of initiating and maintaining close ties with practitioners whose role as active participants in the education programme the library school would like to promote. (Cf *SAILIS Standards* recommendation that institutions should regard the hosting and supervision of fieldwork students as their contribution to professional education (1987 : 28).)

Communication was identified as an important means of ensuring the smooth running of the programme, of securing the co-operation and involvement of the host institutions and of obviating any potential sources of misunderstanding. Another duty of the department was that of monitoring the programme and of following up any reported problems. The student

project, evaluation exercise and the class seminar, were seen as integral parts of the learning process.

6.6.5 Indicators of success

The library school has formal means of testing the impact of the programme on the students, viz. their reports and evaluations of the programme and the host institutions' assessment of the students' performance. These provide valuable information to the department both as to current feedback and as input for future planning. In addition to these formal mechanisms, they use informal means of determining the success and the impact on the students, viz. their own observations of students' subsequent behaviour in the classroom and at the rounding off seminars.

There was a remarkably consistent response from the lecturers in their identification of indicators of success of the fieldwork programme. The enthusiasm and positive attitude of the student towards the programme and towards the profession was seen as a reliable indicator of success. Another important measure was seen to be the extent or manner in which the student is able to bring the experience back into the classroom and how s/he can relate it to theory. The stress here was on the reciprocal and interactive relationship between theory and practice : the test for the student being if s/he can use the practical experience as input for theory.

Another proposed measure of success was the degree to which students were able to express their critical awareness of the

practice of library and information science. Critical analysis was seen to be an important outcome of the programme. This approach also offers an alternative conception to the traditional view expressed of fieldwork as a vehicle for the exercise of practical and technical skills. It can be argued that this common view is dysfunctional in that it detaches practical activity from its theoretical base. Fieldwork, by contrast, should provide the occasion for critical inquiry into practice and skill as they are related to theory, not viewing theory as the mere application of skills and techniques (Cf discussion in Section 2.5.3 on relationship between theory and practice).

6.7 Students' response to the programme

In this section the researcher sought to establish students' attitudes to the programme and to account for these attitudes. An attempt was made to interpret the students' response to and experience of the programme. The findings are based on the data derived from the questionnaire.

6.7.1 Analysis of Part A of the Questionnaire

The procedures and specific methods employed in the analysis of the questionnaire have been explained in the discussion related to analysis of Case A (Section 5.7.1). (The questionnaire is attached as Appendix 18).

The analysis of Part A of the questionnaire, which tested students' attitudes to the programme, revealed a generally favourable attitude on the whole, with the top score being 124

and the lowest score being 84 (i.e. an index of 4,59 and 3,11, respectively). Table 32 displays the indices, in ranked order from the most favourable to the most negative score :

TABLE 32. ATTITUDE INDICES RANKED (N = 14) AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

<u>Attitude index</u>	<u>Standard deviation</u>
4,59	0,69
4,44	0,70
4,33	0,83
4,19	0,92
4,04	0,59
3,96	0,52
3,85	0,36
3,85	0,53
3,81	0,79
3,78	0,85
3,70	0,72
3,67	0,62
3,33	0,96
3,11	1,09

Table 33 shows the frequency and distribution of attitude indices according to degree of positivity. The mean scores were classified into five categories according to the ranges computed for the same purpose in Case A (Cf Section 5.7.2).

TABLE 33. RANGE OF POSITIVITY/NEGATIVITY OF ATTITUDE INDICES

<u>Very positive</u>	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Mildly pos</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Very negative</u>
1 (7,1%)	11 (78,6%)	2 (14,3%)	0	0

It can be seen from this table that the overwhelming majority of students had positive attitudes (12 students or 85,7%), while only two attitude indices fell in the mildly positive range. There were no negative or very negative attitudes.

Table 34 ranks each factor in the attitude questionnaire according to the degree of positivity. (Note those items of reverse polarity that had to be scored negatively : Cf Section 5.7.2.)

TABLE 34. ATTITUDE INDEX : STATEMENTS RANKED ACCORDING TO POSITIVITY OF RESPONSES

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Mean score</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
The fieldwork programme should be withdrawn from the course	4,43	0,51
The fieldwork was a meaningful learning experience	4,36	0,50
I can now relate to the subject matter of my whole course of from a wider perspective	4,29	0,61
I developed more confidence in myself and my ability as a result of the fieldwork programme	4,29	0,61
The programme has helped me integrate theoretical and practical aspects of the course	4,29	0,47

TABLE 34 (CONTD.)

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Mean score</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
The fieldwork programme offered me an opportunity to apply principles to practice	4,21	0,43
If fieldwork were an optional component of the course, I would choose not to go	4,21	0,70
Participating in the the programme made little difference to me	4,21	0,42
The programme was an unrewarding experience	4,14	0,66
I now feel more aware of the needs of users of libraries/ information centres	4,14	0,66
I developed greater awareness of practical problems related to library and information work	4,14	1,03
My fieldwork experience was irrelevant to my learning needs	4,07	0,47
In my opinion my time and effort was well spent on this learning experience	4,00	0,78
The fieldwork experience has made my classroom learning seem more relevant	4,00	0,64
Fieldwork is less useful than the other components of the course	4,00	0,55
The programme allowed me to develop and practise communication skills	3,93	0,92
The programme helped me achieve a deeper understanding of library and information science	3,93	0,47
During the fieldwork programme I learned to understand new and different viewpoints	3,93	0,62
The programme was a challenging learning experience	3,86	0,95

TABLE 34 (CONTD.)

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Mean score</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
The fieldwork programme encouraged independent learning	3,71	0,73
I feel more interested in the course as a whole as a result of fieldwork	3,71	0,95
I developed professional skills needed in library/information work	3,57	0,85
I can now relate to the subject matter of my whole course of studies from a wider perspective	3,50	0,76
The fieldwork programme offered me an opportunity to use my own initiative	3,50	0,85
Students doing fieldwork are used as cheap labour	3,50	0,85
My own learning objectives were achieved by the fieldwork programme	3,50	0,65
I would like to have spent more time on the fieldwork programme	2,21	1,05

The only statement yielding a negative score is the one asking students if they would like to spend more time on fieldwork (a mean score of 2,21). This score requires interpretive comment because it is far lower than the next lowest score. The answer to the apparent anomaly lies in the responses to other questions. The students were satisfied with the programme and satisfied that its objectives had been met. It would therefore have been superfluous for them to have spent more time on the programme. The interpretation of this puzzle was made possible by means of questions that allowed for unstructured responses, thus underlining the value of

incorporating qualitative data in a questionnaire that has fixed-category responses. In the absence of these data, puzzling or anomalous results might have to remain unexplained (Cf Sections 4.8 and 4.9 for the rationale of the research design of this study).

6.7.2 Analysis of Part B of the questionnaire

The wording of each question is repeated for ease of reference. (Cf Appendix 18 for the full text of the questionnaire.)

Question 1. "I was encouraged to offer opinions and constructive criticism on the institution, the department or branch where I was assigned." Table 35 shows the unanimity of the response to this question.

TABLE 35. NUMBER OF STUDENTS INVITED TO MAKE CRITICAL COMMENT

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
14 (100%)	0	0

There is a strong relationship between this unanimously positive response and the formally stated requirement of the library school that the students write an evaluative report of the institution and the programme (Cf Sections 6.4.1 and 6.4.2). An important learning outcome associated with this activity was that summarized by a student : "I developed the ability to evaluate critically."

Question 2. "Has the fieldwork changed your opinion of what a librarian/information worker does?" Table 36 displays the number and percentage of responses in each category and Table 37 shows the direction of the reported change.

TABLE 36. CHANGE IN AWARENESS OF LIBRARY AND INFORMATION WORK

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
10 (71,4%)	4 (28,6%)	0

TABLE 37. DIRECTION OF CHANGE

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>
10 (71,4%)	1 (7,1%)	3 (21,4%)

The majority of students experienced a positive change in their conception of library and information work, with only one negative response. The students whose ideas changed in a positive direction did so on account of gaining insight into the diversity, complexity and significance of library and information work and its value to society. This was a consensus view. For the student whose opinion changed in a negative direction, the fieldwork programme had an overall negative consequence in that it brought the realization that library and information work would probably not provide job satisfaction. This student had the lowest score among the attitude indices (3,11).

Question 3. This question required students to comment on the value of fieldwork in shedding light on various professional matters. Table 38 displays the dimensions ranked according to

the degree of support given to each. The figures under each column represent the number and percentage of responses in each category.

TABLE 38. RANKED ORDER OF SATISFACTION WITH DIMENSIONS OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncert.</u>
Career prospects	14 100%	0 0	0 0
Management style	14 100%	0 0	0 0
Organization of library/ information centres	14 100%	0 0	0 0
Practical skills	14 100%	0 0	0 0
Relationship between libraries/ information centres and users	13 92,9%	0 0	1 7,1%
Current practice in l i s	13 92,9%	0 0	1 7,1%
User needs and behaviour	13 92,9%	0 0	1 7,1%
Professional values	13 92,9%	0	1 7,1%
Relationship between theory and practice	12 85,7%	0 0	2 14,3%
Information technology	12 85,7%	0 0	2 14,3%
Relationship between l i s and other academic areas	6 42,9%	4 28,6%	4 28,6%

Overall, high levels of satisfaction were expressed that light was shed on all of the areas specified, except the relationship between library and information science and other academic areas. (Cf the discussion of the results to Question 3 in Case A for a reference to the importance of the

relationship between extra-professional disciplines and library and information science.) The unanimously positive response to the first four categories is remarkable.

The results of this question are consistent with and reinforce the results of Part A which reflect a generally favourable attitude among the cohort of students in Case B.

Question 4. "Has the fieldwork had any effect on your career plans?" The number and percentage of responses in each category is shown in Table 39.

TABLE 39. EFFECT ON CAREER PLANS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
14 (100%)	0	0

In the majority of cases (12 or 85,7%) the experience of the fieldwork programme was positive in that it either affirmed the "correctness" of their career decision, or refined the choice, e.g. a preference for information work as opposed to public library work. A few direct quotations will illustrate the positive effect that fieldwork had on career plans :

It gave me a better idea of choice and variety

I am very keen now on working in an academic library

Two students (with an attitude index of 3,33 and 3,11 respectively) reported that the fieldwork experience had changed their career plans in a negative way in that they

questioned seriously their choice of profession and wished to change career direction, although one of these students was reserving her options to continue with her plans. Overall, the results provide evidence of the programme's high career relevance.

Question 5. "Have your expectations of fieldwork been fulfilled?" Table 40 displays the predominantly positive response to this question :

TABLE 40. FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS ABOUT FIELDWORK

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
13 (92,9%)	1 (7,1%)	0

This result gives an indication of the overwhelming satisfaction of students' expectations. A few representative quotations will illustrate this positive tendency :

I did not have any precise expectations for each library, but I was never disappointed

I expected to be able to apply theory to practice, and I did

The fieldwork at the university library was meaningful and particularly relevant to my studies

The dissenting response came from the student who has decided not to proceed with a career in library and information work. The direct quotation explains the effect :

It clarified for me that I do not want to be a librarian

Question 6. "Have your expectations about the course as a whole been fulfilled?" The distribution of responses is shown in Table 41 :

TABLE 41. FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS ABOUT THE COURSE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
12 (85,7%)	1 (7,1%)	1 (7,1%)

The vast majority of students expressed satisfaction with expectations about the course as a whole. The negative response was from the student identified earlier who has decided not to pursue a career in library and information work.

Table 42 compares the responses to the two questions which are seen to be related. The number and percentage is given for each category.

TABLE 42. COMPARISON OF RESPONSES WITH RESPECT TO FULFILMENT OF EXPECTATIONS

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
Fieldwork	13 (92,9%)	1 (7,1%)	0
Course as a whole	12 (85,7%)	1 (7,1%)	1 (7,1%)

Question 7. "As a result of the fieldwork programme I feel more positive about my chosen profession." The distribution of responses, by number and percentage, is displayed in Table 43 :

TABLE 43. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS EVINCING GREATER POSITIVITY ABOUT THE LIBRARY AND INFORMATION PROFESSION

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
12 (85,7%)	2 (14,3%)	0

Twelve students felt more positive about their chosen profession as a result of their fieldwork experience. In the case of one of these students, the fieldwork experience dispelled initial doubts about following a career in library and information work. Both of the students reporting less positivity about the profession have doubts about entering the profession, based on their assessment of the sort of work involved which neither found satisfying.

The students felt more positive on account of the following factors :

- realization of the importance and value of library and information work
- the variety and interest of career possibilities
- realization of the profession's dynamic and potential for job satisfaction

The following quotations are representative of the positive effects reported :

At the public library I realize that they are doing something very useful and that they enjoy it. This encourages me.

I now realize that the librarian plays an important role in society and that the negative image people have of librarians is unfair. I now really want to to be a librarian.

Question 8. "How would you describe your supervision during the fieldwork programme?" Table 44 indicates the distribution of responses in each category :

TABLE 44. LEVEL OF SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION

<u>Gen.sat.</u>	<u>Sometimes sat.</u>	<u>Sometimes unsat.</u>	<u>Gen. unsat.</u>
13 (92,9%)	0	1 (7,1%)	0

There was virtually unanimous satisfaction with the level and quality of supervision. The only student qualifying the favourable response did so on account of the fact that occasionally the supervisor was an unqualified librarian. Apart from this rather minor complaint, there was a favourable response to supervision even from the two students who have occasionally responded negatively in other areas.

A consensus emerged from the responses about what constituted good supervision :

- availability to answer questions
- checking and assessing students' work
- allowing students' latitude to complete a task without constant vigilance

The following representative quotations illustrate the factors associated with their satisfaction :

They explained and asked questions. Did not police me and watch me like a hawk.

We always worked under supervision and had our work checked and evaluated.

They did not breathe down my neck, but they always checked my work.

Question 9. "I had a clear idea of what was expected of me during the fieldwork programme." The students experienced no difficulty in this area, as Table 45 shows conclusively :

TABLE 45. LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF WHAT WAS EXPECTED OF STUDENTS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
14 (100%)	0	0

This result points conclusively to the existence and value of sound briefing of students for the programme, and the provision of guidelines to the institution.

Question 10. "Which of the following terms most accurately reflects your evaluation of the fieldwork programme?" Table 46 shows the range of responses to this question :

TABLE 46. STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THE FIELDWORK PROGRAMME

<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Adequate</u>
4 (28,6%)	9 (64,3%)	1 (7,1%)

The factors associated with the almost unanimous rating of the programme as good to very good can be classified into two broad categories as follows :

- organizational/environmental factors such as
 - * a well organized programme
 - * the amount of time and effort spent by the hosts
 - * positive disposition of the hosts towards the students
- educational factors such as
 - * good coverage of subject matter
 - * provision of useful learning opportunities

Even the students who had doubts about their future career rated the programme as good on the grounds that it gave them the opportunity to test themselves for the profession.

A comparison between the results of this question and the attitude indices computed according to Part A of the questionnaire reveals a good correlation, thereby validating the dimensions measured in the attitude index.

Question 11. "The fieldwork programme was well organized by the host institutions." The unanimous support for this statement indicated in Table 47 renders comment superfluous :

TABLE 47. STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
14 (100%)	0	0

Question 12. "If you were asked to rate your performance in the fieldwork programme, how would you rate it?" Table 48 shows the classification of responses and the number and percentage in each category :

TABLE 48. STUDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THEIR PERFORMANCE

<u>Very successful</u>	<u>Successful</u>	<u>Unsuccessful</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>Varied</u>
4 (28,6%)	10 (71,4%)	0	0	0

Once again, there is a positive correlation between the favourable attitudes expressed about the fieldwork programme and the level of personal achievement reported in this question. The reasons advanced by all students (except one) for their assessment related to their ability to carry out instructions and perform tasks assigned to them. In contrast to this rather modest criterion of success, one student assessed her performance as very successful because she discovered abilities she had been unaware of and developed communication skills : a more searching measure which also demonstrates insight into learning.

Question 13. "What do you consider to be the main weaknesses of the programme?" The responses to this question revealed that there were no serious difficulties. Six students could find no defects at all because the programme had achieved its aims. Of the 8 statements made, only three could be classified into one category. (In order to be defined as a category, a concept has to be identified by two or more students.) The defect mentioned by the three students is that

they are not paid for the work that they do in the continuous programme in the 3rd-year. The argument is that the time spent is long enough for them to make a concrete contribution to the operation and that they sometimes incur board and lodging and transport costs.

The conclusion is, then, that there are no serious problems of educational significance and that the one issue that has been identified is an administrative one and outside the control of the library school. It is also inconsistent with the recommendation of the *SAILIS Standards* which reads as follows : "[the host institution should] preferably not remunerate students for fieldwork" (1987 : 29).

Question 14. "What do you consider to be the most beneficial feature(s) of the fieldwork programme?" The 19 responses could be classified into three categories which are shown in ranked order in Table 49 :

TABLE 49. MAIN BENEFITS OF THE PROGRAMME IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Benefit identified</u>	<u>% of responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Anticipatory socialization	57,9%	11	78,6%
Career relevance	21,1%	4	28,6%
Link between theory and practice	21,1%	4	28,6%

The category of "anticipatory socialization" in the context of fieldwork has been discussed in the section dealing with analysis of the questionnaire in Case A (Cf Question 14). The theory of socialization including anticipatory socialization has been dealt with (Section 2.4.5.4).

This benefit was expressed in such terms as :

- exposure to the meaning of professionalism
- a preview of what the profession is like
- the testing of student's compatibility with the profession

The two other benefits identified enjoyed equal support, viz. the link between theory and practice, and career relevance.

Question 15. "What did you like most about doing fieldwork?"

Table 50 reveals in ranked order those aspects most appreciated by students, with a breakdown of numbers and percentage in each category. There were 24 statements that were classified into four categories :

TABLE 50. FEATURES OF THE PROGRAMME APPRECIATED BY STUDENTS

<u>Category</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Involvement with meaningful work	50%	12	85,7%
Involvement/ interaction	25%	6	42,9%
Exposure to different work environments	12,5%	3	21,4%
Atmosphere	12,5%	3	21,4%

The feature with the highest frequency is the experience of being involved with tasks that they enjoyed and which were meaningful. The element of reality was also dominant in this category and is related to the category of exposure to different working environments. A significant number of students also enjoyed the opportunity for interaction with users and with professionals (Cf positive correlation with the results of Question 8).

A smaller number isolated the agreeable and professional atmosphere as the most enjoyable aspect of their experience. All of these categories (with the exception of the concept of "atmosphere") could be subsumed under a broader generic category of experiential learning, because they all describe important aspects of this mode of learning. (Cf Section 2.4.4 which discusses experiential learning.)

Question 16. "What did you like least about doing fieldwork?" The 17 responses were classified into two categories which have been ranked according to frequency in Table 51. Two statements were unclassifiable.

TABLE 51. FEATURES OF THE PROGRAMME THAT THE STUDENTS LIKED LEAST

<u>Category</u>	<u>% of total responses</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Activities	70,6%	12	85,7%
Student role/ librarians' attitude	17,7%	3	21,4%
Unclassifiable	11,8%	2	14,3%

In the first category which is by far the most prominent one, students gave explicit and concrete examples of what they liked least about the fieldwork programme. In this category they identified tasks and activities that they had found disagreeable : nine because they were perceived to be boring and trivial, e.g. shelf-reading, and three because they felt they lacked the requisite experience to do them competently, e.g. book selection. The three students who identified as a difficulty their role and their relationship with supervisors and other staff, did so on the grounds that they sometimes felt in the way particularly when they were treated with impatience (2 cases). One student whose response was also classified in this category, located a source of difficulty in the fact that one of her supervisors was unqualified (Cf Question 8).

Question 17. "Which of the following terms describes the work you were given?" The varied results to this question are displayed in Table 52 :

TABLE 52. DESCRIPTION OF TASKS ASSIGNED

<u>Description</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
Too much	0	0
Too little	1	7,1%
Satisfactory	13	92,9%
Interesting	3	21,4%
Dull	1	7,1%
Both	10	71,4%
Too easy	1	7,1%
Suitable	13	92,9%
Too difficult	0	0
Varied	8	57,1%
Repetitive	2	14,3%
Both	4	28,6%

From the varied response pattern presented in this table, it is difficult to characterize with consistency or precision the nature of tasks given to students. On the whole, the evidence is that students accepted that the work could not sustain a high level of interest and variety but that the routine and boring tasks were compensated for by the more interesting and challenging tasks.

The student with the lowest attitude index (3,11) explained in response to this question the reason for wishing to abandon a career in library and information work :

The work was inclined to be boring - the same routine every day. It is not a satisfactory profession for this reason. Still the fieldwork was necessary for me to realize this.

Question 18. "High standards of performance were set." Table 53 displays the varied responses to this question, in terms of number and percentage in each category :

TABLE 53. STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
7 (50%)	6 (42,9%)	1 (7,1%)	0

There were two approaches to the question about whether high standards of performance were set. One approach identified and responded to extrinsic demands, while the other dominant approach was a response to intrinsic demands and self-motivation. Five students (who responded "no") set their own standards, realizing that they were in a professional environment. Seven students recognized extrinsic demands by way of standards being set by the institution. In four cases these standards were perceived as minimal : completion of the task and the ability to follow instructions regardless of level of performance. Three students responded to standards that required high levels of performance.

The following direct quotations illustrate the two dominant approaches to this question :

I set my own high standards : I do not want to make a poor impression

I wanted to behave in a professional way. I was not explicitly told to but I felt that I should act purposefully, concentrate and have a professional attitude

They set high standards especially in the case of cataloguing and classification

They expected us to do our best at all times

I was satisfied just to be able to do what they told me

Question 19. "The objectives and requirements of the fieldwork programme were communicated clearly and explicitly by the library school." The response to this question was unanimously positive, as Table 54 indicates :

TABLE 54. SETTING OF OBJECTIVES AND REQUIREMENTS BY THE LIBRARY SCHOOL

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Partially</u>
14 (100%)	0	0

The following representative quotations illustrate students' satisfaction with this aspect : :

Yes. You could see from their guidelines exactly what was expected of you.

We got a very good handout telling us what to look out for and also criteria according to which we would be evaluated.

Question 20. "The supervising librarian(s) suggested specific ways I could improve my performance." The responses to this question were distributed according to the pattern presented in Table 55:

TABLE 55. NUMBERS OF STUDENTS RECEIVING EXPLICIT ADVICE ON HOW TO IMPROVE PERFORMANCE

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
6 (42,9%)	4 (28,6%)	4 (28,6%)

If one combines the "yes" and "sometimes" categories, it can be seen concluded that there was a satisfactory level of supervision and guidance. In two of the negative responses the reason for the apparent lack of guidance was that the students did not need extra advice because supervisors were satisfied with their work and because their tasks were very well explained.

Question 21. "I felt motivated to do my best." The results to this question are displayed in Table 56 which indicates the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 56. LEVELS OF MOTIVATION REPORTED BY STUDENTS

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>
10 (71,4%)	0	4 (28,6%)

This table demonstrates a high level of motivation, with no student feeling wholly unmotivated or demotivated. The sources of motivation can be classified as follows :

- attitude of staff and environmental atmosphere (6 students)
- intrinsic level of interest of work tasks (4 students whose responses fall in the "sometimes" category)

- self-motivation : a desire to make the most of the opportunities (4 students)

It can be seen from this simple typology that 10 students responded to extrinsic motivation (that was either context-dependent or task-dependent), and 4 students to intrinsic motivation. A representative sample of quotations will illustrate these categories :

Yes. I responded to the professional atmosphere.

Yes. We were encouraged by the staff.

Sometimes, except when the work was boring

Yes. I wanted to make the most of the opportunity.

Question 22. "What do you think of the timing of the fieldwork sessions?" The responses to this question were fairly evenly split as is shown in Table 57 which indicates the number and percentage of responses in each category :

TABLE 57. DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH TIMING OF THE PROGRAMME

<u>Satisfactory</u>	<u>Unsatisfactory</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>
7 (50%)	6 (42,9%)	1 (7,1%)

No coherent pattern emerged as to reasons for dissatisfaction. Two students were unhappy about doing fieldwork in the vacation, two students would prefer to start fieldwork in the first year in order to get an early preview of the profession

and their suitability for it and two students believed that the third year programme could be compressed into less time.

Question 23. "If fieldwork were omitted from the course, the course would be ..." Table 58 shows the response pattern in the various pre-determined categories :

TABLE 58. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAMME IF FIELDWORK WERE OMITTED

<u>Course would be</u>	<u>No. of students</u>	<u>% of students</u>
More enjoyable	0	0
Less enjoyable	9	64,3%
Uncertain	5	35,7%
More useful	0	0
Less useful	14	100%
Uncertain	0	0
More interesting	0	0
Less interesting	14	100%
Uncertain	0	0
No different	0	0
Different	14	100%
Uncertain	0	0

There was unanimity in the high rating of the dimensions of interest, utility and difference. On the question of enjoyment, 5 students were uncertain. The reason given for this uncertainty was that there is a certain amount of tension and anxiety attached to the programme because students are entering an unknown environment.

Question 24. "The following is a list of possible aims for the fieldwork programme." Students were asked to rate each aim according to its importance. Mean scores were computed

for each aim. Table 59 shows the aims ranked in order of importance :

TABLE 59. POSSIBLE AIMS FOR AN IDEAL FIELDWORK PROGRAMME IN RANKED ORDER

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Mean score</u>
To instil professional attitudes	4,57
To provide link between theory and practice	4,50
To familiarize students with tools and routines of library and information work	4,50
To develop independent learning	4,50
To learn about the organization of libraries/information centres	4,43
To illustrate material taught in class	4,43
To expose students to various working environments	4,36
To test students' suitability for the profession	4,29
To instil confidence	4,29
To provide students with professional contacts	4,21
To perform basic technical skills	4,21
To practise communication skills	4,14
To learn about user needs and behaviour	4,14
To observe good practice	4,07
To develop problem-solving skills	4,00
To test students' practical ability	3,85
To observe good librarians and information workers at work	3,79
To vary teaching methods	2,14
To provide a break from formal classes	2,14

Another way of analysing the responses to this question is to rank each aim according to the degree of positive support (with 5 representing maximum support and 1 minimum support). In Table 60 each aim is ranked according to the positivity of the aggregated responses :

TABLE 60. AIMS RANKED ACCORDING TO POSITIVITY OF RESPONSE

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Values</u>				
	5	4	3	2	1
To instil professional attitudes	8 57,1%	6 42,9%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To provide link between theory and practice	7 50%	7 50%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To familiarize students with tools and routines	7 50%	7 50%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To develop independent learning	7 50%	7 50%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To illustrate material taught in class	6 42,9%	8 57,1%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To learn about the organization of libraries/information centres	6 42,9%	8 57,1%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To expose students to various working environments	5 35,7%	9 64,3%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To test students' suitability for the profession	4 28,6%	10 71,4%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To instil confidence	5 35,7%	8 57,1%	1 7,1%	0 0	0 0

TABLE 60 (CONTD.)

<u>Aim</u>	<u>Values</u>				
To provide students with professional contacts	3 21,4%	11 78,6%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To perform basic technical skills	4 28,6%	9 64,3%	1 7,1%	0 0	0 0
To practise communication skills	5 35,7%	7 50%	1 7,1%	1 7,1%	0 0
To learn about user needs and behaviour	2 14,3%	12 85,7%	0 0	0 0	0 0
To observe good practice	3 21,4%	9 64,3%	2 14,3%	0 0	0 0
To develop problem-solving skills	2 14,3%	10 71,4%	2 14,3%	0 0	0 0
To test students' practical ability	0 0	13 92,9%	0 0	1 7,1%	0 0
To observe good librarians and information workers at work	2 14,3%	7 50%	5 35,7%	0 0	0 0
To vary teaching methods	0 0	0 0	2 14,3%	12 85,7%	0 0
To provide a break from formal classes	0 0	0 0	2 14,3%	12 85,7%	0 0

A number of conclusions can be drawn from a study of these tables. Most aims were ranked as either very important, or important, with only two aims being ranked as unimportant, viz. the aims of varying teaching methods and providing a break from formal classes. The aim with the greatest positive support is that of inculcating professional attitudes.

There is a positive correlation between many of the aims identified as important or very important and the achievement of these aims, a conclusion supported by evidence presented in the findings of a number of other questions, notably Questions 3, 14 and 15. The highest rated aim, that of the inculcation of professional attitudes, scores correspondingly highly as a successful dimension of the programme (Cf Table 38) and as a benefit (identified as anticipatory socialization in Question 14).

There is a positive relationship between another highly rated aim, viz. that of providing a link between theory and practice, and its realization (Cf Part A of the questionnaire in which this dimension of the programme is rated positively, and Table 38). Coincidentally, the mean score for this dimension as measured in Part A and as an aim as measured in Question 24, is identical, viz. 4,14.

There is also a positive correlation between learning about the organization of libraries/information centres as an aim, and the achievement of this aim as measured in Question 3 (Cf Table 38) and between the important aim of instilling of confidence and its realization (Cf Table 34).

Question 25. This question invited students to suggest improvements to the fieldwork programme. There were only 5 suggested improvements. Three students would like to be paid for the fieldwork, 2 students felt that clerical work should

not be offered and 1 student suggested that supervisors would benefit from a training or orientation period.

Question 26. This gave the opportunity to students to make further observations or discuss any aspect that had been omitted from the questionnaire. Only two comments were offered : one that students' experience should not be limited to the public and university libraries, and the other that fieldwork should be spread over the four years of the degree programme.

What is striking about the results from the questionnaire is the consistency and uniformity of the responses. The explanation is possibly two-fold :

- the small number of students might account for this pattern
- another reason that suggests itself is linked to the first factor, viz. that at least the 4th-year students shared a very similar experience in the same environment, that of the university library. The weight of evidence suggests that this is a very good programme, which accounts for the consistently positive response. The other students had a limited number of placements, some of which were shared. The similarity of the sites, and the fact that the programmes offered by these hosts were on the whole good, also accounts for the generally favourable response among the third year students. The

fact that the library school has fewer sites to monitor also makes it easier for a standardized programme to be offered.

6.8 Analysis of the interviews

The interview was conducted with all 14 students according to the interview schedule (attached as Appendix 18). (Cf Section 5.8 for a discussion of the relationship between the questionnaire and interview data). Because the interview schedules were identical in both cases, the researcher has attempted to establish to what extent the concepts and themes are similar in both cases. However, the differing pattern of responses and differences in prominence of themes and concepts has made it necessary to modify the framework of analysis employed in the analytical discussion of Case A.

6.9 Professional socialization

The data derived from the questionnaire and the interviews of Case B revealed the salience of professional socialization as an important factor in the programme.

6.9.1 Professional attitudes

Students both in the 3rd year and in the 4th year were very conscious of professionalism as they encountered it during the fieldwork programme. While all students referred frequently to the concept of professional values and professional attitudes, few of them were able to define the concept. They had greater facility in defining and exemplifying negative correlates of professionalism. The professional attribute

with the highest frequency rating was the attribute of enthusiasm which proved to be as elusive a concept to define as professionalism. Nevertheless, the students had no hesitation in identifying the occasions when they encountered enthusiasm or the individuals who communicated their enthusiasm to them. Another prominent feature of professionalism defined by the students was user orientation or orientation to service.

In the analysis of students' conceptualization of professional attitudes and values and in the establishment of mechanisms for professional socialization, it was possible to distinguish between patterns of response regarding the university library and the 3rd-year placements. There were three very prominent features operant in the professional socialization of students participating in the programme at the university library :

- a very professional environment characterized by high levels of professional performance and advanced application of technology
- positive and professional attitudes of supervisors
- opportunity for students to perform professional tasks

There was unanimous and enthusiastic endorsement of this assessment of the university library by the students. The following quotations typify their assessment of the impact of exposure to professionalism :

The atmosphere of professionalism is very important. Staff are very professional and encourage an attitude of professionalism among students.

There are very advanced technologies in the university library. We had a real advantage in our fieldwork there because of the training in information technology we got there.

There was agreement among the students that the mission of the university library and the means of achieving its aims approximated the students' own conception of a highly professional library and information service. There is evidence of continuity between academic preparation of the students and the fieldwork experience, an important influence on positive socialization (Cf Schein, 1967). There was, thus, a high level of identification with the professional orientation of the library with consequent positive socialization effects.

The staff at the university library expected a certain standard of performance from the students. The following positive responses are typical of this group of students who were motivated by being given challenging tasks relevant to their studies :

They offer us professional tasks because they know we can do it because we have learned it

At one session they asked me to compile a bibliography. At first I was a bit uncertain because although we had studied that in class I had never actually done one. But then I thought, "If they think I can do it, then I can and will." So I tackled it and it went well.

The students who participated in the third year programme were also aware of professional attitudes which they commonly characterized as user orientation or orientation to service. The technological environments were not as sophisticated or advanced as that of the university library, so that this was a lesser factor in their experience.

The only three negative correlates of professionalism that students identified, based on their experience, were :

- a lack of courtesy towards users (3 students)
- a dismissive and negligent attitude by a supervisor to three students in her charge (3 students)
- failure by a school librarian to fulfil her professional obligation to promote the centrality of the school library in the school (1 student)

Three students who commented on brusque treatment of users attributed this difficulty to the fact that the circulation desk was manned by unqualified librarians who did not understand the importance of sympathetic handling of users nor the consequences of projecting an unfavourable image of the institution and the profession. This prompted their observation that such a practice was in conflict with their notion of professional delivery of services. The following quotation is representative of this shared perspective :

One thing that worried me was the many unqualified people who work at the circulation desk. They don't know how to handle the user. They know the routines but not the importance of the user. Sometimes they are abrupt and discourteous with the user. We learn that you must do your best with the user.

The case involving the unsatisfactory relationship between a supervisor and her three charges is discussed later under the heading of student role (Cf Section 6.9.4).

In none of the cases identified was there any evidence of negative socialization influences on these students who were exposed to the manifestations of behaviour or views inconsistent with their conceptions of professional behaviour. The reason for this is likely to be that these were singular events and they were than offset by the more numerous positive encounters with professional attitudes and behaviour. In the case of the student who noted that the school librarian had failed (or not even attempted) to integrate the school library as an essential unit in the school, her resolve was strengthened to become a school librarian and to promote the role of the school library within the school.

6.9.2 Mechanisms of socialization

The mechanisms associated with positive socialization in Case B include the following :

- exposure to and identification with attitudes of professionalism
- positive encounter with reality

- assignment of professional tasks
- warm reception and interest in students and their progress

The students expressed appreciation of being given the chance to participate actively in the professional operation of the library. Most students were afforded this opportunity and only a few reported having to perform tasks that they classified as unprofessional (Cf Section 5.9.4 for a discussion of the relationship between allocation of tasks and professional socialization).

All of the students responded favourably to the kind way in which they were received by host institutions, expressing appreciation of the time and effort spent in making them welcome. One student aptly described the positive effect of such an approach :

The public library sent me a questionnaire asking where I'd like to work and what I'd like to do particularly. It made me feel immediately that they were interested in me and wanted to help me. It was a lovely experience.

The exposure to professional attitudes and behaviour had the effect of confirming for the students that they were in fact entering a profession whose values and orientation to service were consistent with what they had learned at library school. In many cases the students reported that the experience, in fact, led to the development of a more positive image of the

profession as the following typical quotation from a student in the university library programme illustrates :

I got a much more positive image of our profession in fieldwork at the university library because of all the important work that they do and especially when I saw the information officers

These experiences had the effect of confirming the students' career decisions. They also revealed that the profession that they planned to enter, as exemplified in the environments where they encountered the realities of professional practice, demonstrated a high level of occupational prestige which can play an important role in positive professional socialization, as pointed out by Mortimer and Simmons (1978 : 438).

This positive effect was not confined to the university library. A number of students commented that they were surprised and pleased to witness the complexity and variety of activities that go on "behind the scenes" of the public library. There was an exception to this generally positive outcome : the student referred to in Question 17 who has decided to abandon her plans for a career in library and information work. (Cf Table 43 which supports the analysis in this section.)

6.9.3 Encounter with reality

Reference was made in the preceding paragraph to the encounter with reality that led the student to realize that she had not made the correct career choice. For all other students the

concept of reality emerged as a powerful and positive factor in the socialization process. The effect of being in a real situation led to the development of a more realistic perspective of library and information work and the opportunity to test their expectations and aspirations against reality, with positive results except in the case referred to (Cf Table 49).

6.9.4 Student role

With the exception of an isolated instance involving three students being assigned tasks which they perceived to be for the benefit of the supervisor rather than to promote learning, all students reported that they were treated as new recruits during the programme. Although their role was defined as that of new colleagues, students nevertheless stressed the learning functions of this role. The most common expression of the role of collegiality was that they were treated as new members of staff in an induction training programme.

The students' positive response to the definition of their role by supervisors and the host institution is consistent with anticipatory socialization theory which identifies normative clarity as a factor enhancing the chances of positive socialization and, conversely, role ambiguity as a potentially impeding factor (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978 : 432). (Cf Section 5.9.5 for a discussion of the significance of this role and its impact on professional socialization.)

Apart from the symbolic value and its affective consequences for the students, the collegial role also had practical implications which strengthened the positive socialization influences. It allowed the students to participate in the professional life of the institution by doing tasks that their colleagues might do in the normal course of their professional duties (Cf discussion in Section 5.9.4).

The following representative quotations illustrate the concept of collegiality :

They treated us as though we were doing in-service training. They treated us as new members of staff and we would do everything in the divisions.

They treated me as a fellow professional. I felt positive about my role.

We felt like colleagues because they gave us work as the staff would have to do. They used our work afterwards.

All the students appreciated being given real and useful tasks to do. The reciprocal relationship seemed to be important in their positive identification with the professional librarians and their work.

In only one instance, reported independently by three students who shared the placement at a particular branch of a public library, was there a discordant note in the definition of their role. The supervisor in this instance stressed their student role and the authority vested in her role by virtue of the assessment report she was required to write of them and

their performance. All the students in this case reported feeling uncomfortable and resentful of this approach and contrasted it unfavourably with the reception and approach adopted at other placements.

6.10 Learning in the programme

A significant learning outcome has already been reported, viz. socialization. In this section, as in that of Case A, the researcher will concentrate on other learning outcomes not already discussed. The discussion is divided into three aspects :

- learning modes
- learning outcomes
- learning approach

As in Case A, it has been possible to distinguish a number of different learning modes :

- active participation
- observation
- instruction
- reflection

A very strong and positive feature of the programme at all placements was the degree of active involvement in tasks that students defined for the most part as professional and of use to the organization. These opportunities encouraged engagement with the practical situation, engagement with members of staff and engagement with users. There was unanimous appreciation for this opportunity and all students

commented that arranging such activities required time and effort by the host institutions. Very few students reported being involved in ad hoc or random activities that seemed to have no purpose or educational rationale. (Cf Section 6.9.4 for the singular instance of this.)

The supervisors mainly took great care to explain the system : how things worked, the rationale of certain activities etc. The fact that all students were invited to offer critical comment or opinion on the programme or the institutions meant that they could engage in dialogue with supervisors, a very effective means of learning (Cf Table 35).

Another effective vehicle of learning was the evaluative report that students were required to compile of the host institutions and the programme. The project promoted inquiry skills for it required them to find out information to answer certain questions and it encouraged students to put the experience in perspective. The following quotation referring to the educational value of the assignment is representative of the general view of the project :

The report we had to do guided us about what we should be looking for. It was useful. It drew our attention to aspects that we might have overlooked.

Another vehicle for guided reflection and analysis was the seminar arranged and held by the library school after the programme. The feedback function of the seminar was a very important element in their learning, as was the feedback that

they received during the programme. Becker and Carper point out the relationship between the development of a sense of success or failure with respect to the tasks of a profession (i.e. feedback) and professional socialization (1956). All students were aware of the formal assessment procedures and there was consensus that it is a sound practice contributing to effective learning, provided students have access to the assessment of their performance, as happens in their case via the seminar. No students felt that it was a threat to them, their performance or their grades. (The only exception to this has been mentioned in Section 6.9.4 and, in this case, the assessment was one of number of assessment reports written by other supervisors in the same host institution.)

6.10.1 Learning outcomes

A significant learning outcome reported by all students was their being able to appreciate the connections between theory and practice. All students found a good correlation between the theory as presented in the classroom and practice as encountered in the operational environment. The following quotation is representative of a common experience reported by the students, albeit in different areas :

There was a good match in the management [between theory and practice]. We are learning about delegating and planning and communication between staff and users : it's very important.

Because students spent at least three weeks at a particular organization, this opportunity allowed them to extend their

knowledge of professional practice by seeing how a particular organization functions. The numerous opportunities for performing particular tasks allowed them to practise or acquire skills. Apart from other similar cognitive gains, a few students reported gains in insight and the development of interpersonal skills. Two students reported being aware of having developed communication skills.

One student commented that although the relationship between theory and practice was good, she realized that theory could not simply be applied in all contexts without regard for local circumstances. Two students observed that the most significant outcome for them was that the experience gave meaning to their academic studies. One student expressed this outcome rather forcefully :

For the first time I found real meaning. It gave meaning to the whole course.

Four students found that the experience facilitated their being able to discern relationships between various operations, departments and the broader aims that the organizations were trying to achieve.

A number of these gains recall the concept of discovery, which is a typical outcome of experiential learning associated with the construction of meaning and the search for relevance. (Cf Bruner's contribution to experiential learning (1963; 1966) discussed in Section 2.4.4). (Cf also Table 38 which refers to learning outcomes.)

6.10.2 Learning approach

It was not possible to discern any pattern in learning approaches consistently adopted by the students, from the available data. A tentative conclusion can be drawn that the encouragement of comment and opinion by supervisors (as reported by the students) would facilitate a deep approach. The reference by two students to the meaning that they found in the experience is also evidence of a deep approach (Cf Entwistle's description (1987 : 11) of a deep approach in Section 5.10.3). The setting of the assignment required students to adopt an analytical stance which would also encourage a deep approach. There is also evidence, however, of a surface approach being occasionally adopted. This emerged from the response to the question asking students to evaluate their performance in the fieldwork programme (Cf results of Question 12 in questionnaire). The dominant response indicated rather a pragmatic and non-reflective measure : the fact that they had been able to follow instructions and that they had not been reprimanded for making mistakes seems to suggest a surface and non-critical approach to learning. This instrumental perspective is indicated by their adoption of the main criterion of success as being able to "get through" a task by executing the correct sequential steps without incurring the displeasure of the supervisor. This efficiency perspective is not consistent with a deep approach which is associated with a more reflective and interpretive stance as defined in Section 5.10.3. These findings support Laurillard's findings concerning the context-

dependence of a learning approach also referred to in Section 5.10.3.

6.11 Ideal programme

As in Case A, students were required to construct an ideal programme, listing the responsibilities and attributes of the various parties and elements involved. There was remarkable consistency in the responses to the question and a striking correspondence between the categories identified in Case B and Case A, a factor that allows for some generalization, which will be made in the concluding chapter. Students in Case B frequently acknowledged that many of the ideal characteristics that they had identified were based on their experience and assessment of the conditions that they had encountered in the programme. As in Case A, the analytical discussion follows the framework of questions asked in the interview. (Cf Appendix 18 for interview schedule.)

6.11.1 Library school

The 42 statements made concerning the role and responsibility of the library school as conceptualized by the students fell naturally into the following categories :

- initiation, organization and control of the programme (9 students)
- drawing up and making available guidelines to host institutions (8 students)
- briefing of students (8 students)
- making and maintaining contact with host institutions (6 students)

- advising students and helping them select their placement (5 students)
- setting of achievable goals for students (3 students)
- receiving and taking note of students' evaluation of the programme (3 students)

The responsibility of supplying guidelines to the host institutions was the one that was elaborated on in greatest detail. The guidelines, according to the students, should set out in unambiguous terms what the library school requires of the host institutions and of the students. The library school should also advise the host institutions of strictures such as the following :

The library school should tell the host institutions to assign us tasks that have to do with professionalism and not just administrative or clerical tasks

They must give guidelines, e.g. students must not do shelf-reading each day - once is enough

6.11.2 Host institution

Two students observed that the university library represented the ideal of a host institution and they could not suggest any improvements. Apart from this summarized position, other students did characterize the ideal attributes of the host institution by means of 38 statements. In the students' currency the "atmosphere" of the host institution was a critical consideration. This elusive concept is made up of a cluster of factors which include the following :

- professional environment (6 students)
- being made to feel part of things (6 students)
- friendly support from members of staff (4 students)
- non-threatening environment (3 students)
- good communication between members of staff (2 students)

A number of other attributes identified in this question which cannot be classified as an aspect of "atmosphere" were the following :

- being prepared for and willing to receive students (5 students)
- awareness of educational objectives of the programme (5 students)
- the planning of a programme of activities (7 students)

6.11.3 Programme of activities

The unanimous response to the question of the attributes of an ideal programme of activities was that students should be assigned professional tasks. A few students elaborated on other details of the programme of activities :

- contact with users (6 students)
- should provide for a good overview of the activities of the organization (4 students)

The following quotation from a student illustrates the function of a planned programme of activities :

It is important to have a schedule. You're in a foreign environment and the schedule helps you feel less strange because you know what to do and where to go.

6.11.4 Ideal supervisor

The 24 responses to this question tended to cluster around three categories:

- personal qualities
- teaching ability
- professional attributes

The category of personal characteristics had the highest frequency rating (10 students). These attributes were :

- enthusiasm
- sympathetic supportive approach which included approachability and encouraging students to ask questions and exchange views
- welcoming attitude that makes students feel at home and not in the way

Among the teaching skills identified by the students were the following (8 students):

- ability to explain clearly and give clear instructions
- willingness to give feedback

Statements falling in the third category were made by 6 students, viz. that the supervisor should be a qualified librarian so that s/he is competent to answer questions.

6.12 Advice to a newcomer

The responses to this question revealed a high degree of consensus, demonstrating, as in the results of this question in Case A, a collective perspective (Cf discussion in Section

5.12 and reference to Becker et al, 1968). Out of 25 statements made, the one with the highest frequency referred to a positive approach. Twelve students said that they would advise newcomers to be positive, to do their best. Nine students offered advice that students should ask questions, revealing a concern to enhance the chances of learning. Four students recommended behavioural conformity, recalling Lacey's concept of strategic compliance (1977 : 67-68) and Becker's related notion of situational adjustment (1964). (Cf discussion of these concepts in Section 5.9.6 and 5.12). Four students would offer reassuring advice, telling students that it is natural to feel apprehensive at first but that the friendly atmosphere would soon dispel their anxiety.

The advice recommending submissive and compliant behaviour is something of a puzzle, because such advice would be more naturally emanating from a threatening environment where students are very aware of power and authority structures. Moreover, the students were all aware of the criteria of assessment which stressed the attainment of educational objectives and did not stress the need to "fit in". The researcher is at a loss to explain this particular construction of the programme and can only assume that it is associated with personal predispositions towards particular types of behaviour. Sorenson explained similar responses in his research (which predominated) as representing the students' belief that they must learn to conform to the system and to authority figures (1967 : 175). However, it should be borne in mind that this is a minority position and by no means

representative of the class as a whole and that the dominant response strongly supported the conclusion of a very positive approach to the programme which was strikingly evident in their advice to the "newcomers". This positive approach which represents the students' summarized position of the programme is supported by evidence in the questionnaire and interview data.

Note : the relative volume of Chapters 5 and 6 can be explained by the following factors :

- the greater number of students in Case A and their tendency to supply more voluminous responses
- the greater diversity of responses in Case A
- the fact that many of the analytical concepts (e.g. relating to learning and professionalization) were discussed in Chapter 5 with cross-references supplied in Chapter 6

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORS' QUESTIONNAIRES

In order to supplement the views, attitudes and opinions of the students and the lecturers, questionnaires were sent to supervising librarians. The value of using multiple methods of data collection in a case study (which because of its nature might have a small bounded population) is discussed in Section 4.13. A total of 23 questionnaires was sent to host institutions who had received students from both Case A and Case B. The response rate was very high - 20 questionnaires being returned, yielding a remarkable response rate of 87%. Of these, two institutions had received students only from Case B, two institutions had received students from both library schools, and 16 institutions have close traditional ties with Case A. It was decided to consolidate their responses as representing their collective position. Purposive sampling was again the method used, the selection being done on the basis of those institutions that have had a long association with fieldwork (Cf Section 4.16 for a discussion of this sampling method). The researcher is aware (by way of personal communication) that the responses to many of the questionnaires represent the collective views of senior personnel who are involved with or who have had experience of fieldwork in each particular institution concerned. (Cf Appendix 19 for a copy of the questionnaire).

Careful analysis of responses to the first three questions revealed that recurrent concepts and themes were distributed

throughout the questions with consequent thematic coherence. It was decided, therefore, to discuss those findings that were distinctive and germane to only one particular question first and then to combine the balance of the responses and to do a composite analysis without specific reference to the substantive question that elicited the responses.

The only two distinctive concepts to emerge which were confined to one question were made in response to Question 2, which asked respondents to explain why they were prepared to accept fieldwork students. The overwhelming response to this question was that they saw the fieldwork programme offered in their institution as their contribution to the professional education of future library and information workers (18 respondents). These respondents saw their participation in the education and training of students as an expression of their professional responsibility and as a contribution to the promotion of the profession. The other dominant response to this question was the view that fieldwork is an opportunity to assess students for possible recruitment to their organization (14 respondents).

The first three questions which elicited responses (apart from the two categories reported in the preceding paragraph) that clustered naturally into related categories, read as follows :

- How important is fieldwork in professional education for library and information science?

- Why is your institution prepared to accept fieldwork students?
- What are the aims and objectives of fieldwork?

The responses to these questions were classified into categories and a frequency count done. Excluding the first two categories reported (accounting for 32 responses) the total number of responses to these questions was 84 which were classified into 11 categories. The responses revolved around the importance, and the aims and objectives of fieldwork.

The category with the highest frequency was the importance of exposing students to an actual working environment so that they can experience and observe the demands and realities of professional practice (18 respondents). The theme of reality, an aspect prominently associated with this category, is related to the concept of anticipatory socialization discussed in Section 2.4.5.4 and referred to by students in both cases (Cf Sections 5.9.2 and 6.9.3 respectively). Sixteen respondents referred to the relationship between theory and practice. The exposure of students to the relationship between theory and practice was variously described in the following terms :

- opportunity to apply theory to practice
- opportunity to understand the relationship
- practice extends theory and contributes to theory-building

- opportunity to appreciate the problematic relationship between theory and practice, viz. that there is no simple formula that allows the application of theory to practice

The conceptualization by a significant number of practitioners of this latter relationship is worthy of note because it does not conform to the standard conceptualization of a linear and algorithmic relationship between theory and practice (Cf Eraut, 1985). From their comments it was clear that many supervisors were keen that students should learn to grasp the complexity of the relationship (a theme that the researcher returns to in the concluding chapter).

The opportunity for practical involvement and the opportunity to learn and exercise practical skills in an operational environment was identified by 14 respondents as an important aspect of fieldwork. Eight of the respondents saw the fieldwork component as an essential part of the programme in that it extended the knowledge and skills of the students and introduced them to the essential elements, and different aspects of library and information science that the library schools were not always able to cover in their course. Career relevance and extension of career possibilities was an aim identified by 9 respondents. Fieldwork allows students to test their aptitude for or compatibility with a particular area of library and information work or a particular environment in which to work (Cf students' identification of this in both cases as an important gain reported in Sections 5.9.1.2 and 6.9.2 respectively.). Only 4 respondents alluded to the

potential for professional socialization, three referring to the instilling of ideas about the service ethic and one respondent pointing out that fieldwork could be instrumental in "shock prevention", a reference to the reverse of a negative socializing effect, reality shock, discussed in Section 5.9.3. It is possible that the respondents' ideas of the transmission of professional attitudes and values were believed to be implicit in the categories identified by them.

Four respondents felt it is important that students should be exposed to a variety of libraries and information centres as a means of extending their knowledge of the profession. Three respondents each identified the following categories : an opportunity for the supervisor to share knowledge and insight with the students; the provision of an opportunity for problem-solving; the opportunity to get assistance from "an extra pair of hands".

Apart from this rather positive conceptualization of the importance and aims of fieldwork as discussed above, there were two rather sobering comments on the aims and objectives of fieldwork. The comments are quoted because they refer to a problem that has been identified both conceptually and empirically as a significant factor that impacts on the fieldwork programme (Cf Sections 3.7.3 and 5.11.1 respectively.). The following observation regarding the aims and the objectives of fieldwork was made by an institution with considerable experience of the fieldwork programme :

There is seemingly no clarity on this subject. We would see it as being no more than an orientation and expect library schools to formulate the policy

This rather serious lacuna was echoed by another institution that felt unable to enumerate the aims and objectives of fieldwork because of lack of clarity and information from library schools about them. The effect of this defect, according to the first respondent quoted, is that the value of the programme is doubtful because of the lack of clarity about whether the programme should be viewed as a period of either orientation or internship, each of which would be characterized and supported by very different programmes and activities.

Question 4. What sort of activities do you believe can achieve these aims and objectives?

The 37 responses to this question tended to fall into two categories : one approach detailing particular activities and tasks assumed to have instrumental value in achieving the aims and objectives of fieldwork, and the other main category pointing to more abstract qualities with respect either to the programme or to a supervisory approach thought to be effective.

Twelve respondents thought that the most effective means of achieving the aims and objectives of fieldwork would be to introduce students to an overview of the organization and

operation of the institution, either by observation and/or through participation in the activities of the various functional divisions. Ten respondents detailed specific activities that they believed would be useful, e.g. attending meetings, working with the public, working in the technical services divisions etc.

Eight respondents each provided a number of statements that defined the attributes of a good programme :

- meaningful, balanced programme
- should include useful, relevant activities
- should not use students as cheap labour
- standardization of programmes by all the library schools in the interests of efficiency and economy
- programme should be designed in consultation with the library school
- evaluation of the programme by students, staff and library school so that areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be jointly explored

In addition to drawing up a profile of a programme, a number of supervisors elaborated on their role and mode of teaching which they felt might be effective. Six respondents stressed the importance of the supervisor's spending time with the students and engaging them in personal discussions, group discussions and seminars so that procedures and their rationale, and aspects of the programme might be explained, and views shared. One supervisor noted that these discussions were an effective means of motivating students and she urged

that senior personnel spend "quality time" with students. The views expressed by these supervisors reflect insightful understanding of one of the essentials of experiential learning, and the empirical evidence of this investigation has demonstrated that such an approach is both effective and personally satisfying to students (Cf Section 3.4.4 for the theoretical discussion; and Sections 5.10.1 and 6.10 which report the responses of students in Case A and Case B respectively).

Question 5. What are the most serious obstacles to achieving these aims and objectives?

The three main generic categories emerging from the 43 responses to this question were related respectively to problems of administration, attitude and communication. The category with the highest frequency rating referred to an administrative problem of time available :

- time allowed by the library school which is seen as too short to achieve as much as respondents would like (10 respondents)
- limited time for supervisors (who tend to be senior staff) to devote as much time as they would like or as much time as the students need (8 respondents)

The attitudinal problem affected both library staff and students. A poor attitude in students (manifested in unmotivated, unresponsive or resistant behaviour) was identified by 8 respondents as a barrier to the successful

implementation of the programme. This defect was attributed to the failure of the library schools to brief and motivate students. Four respondents identified a resistant or unmotivated attitude among host institution staff as being an obstacle to the success of the programme. The solution suggested for this problem was that the library school might communicate more clearly the potential role and contribution that host librarians could make to the programme.

Seven respondents found that the students' lack of preparedness or lack of background theoretical knowledge limited the type of activity that they could usefully be assigned, or was a barrier to their understanding of what was being demonstrated/explained to them. This problem was exacerbated by the fact that the supervisors did not always know how much theoretical background to assume.

Two respondents felt that the lack of guidelines was an obstacle to their preparing a useful programme because they did not know what the library schools wanted or expected of the students. Two respondents felt that the success of the programme was jeopardized by host institutions' using fieldwork students to do the sort of "housekeeping tasks" that pile up and get done only when students come on fieldwork. This practice was described in the following way by one of these respondents:

The tendency to use students during fieldwork to perform outstanding menial tasks such as mending books and doing overdue notices etc. These tasks do nothing to develop an understanding and awareness of professional practice and can also put the students off.

This response is associated with potential negative socialization effects of inappropriate task allocation referred to in Section 5.9.3.

Question 6. What is your opinion regarding the most appropriate methods of assessing fieldwork students' performance during the fieldwork programme?

The respondents tended to align themselves along two positions in their response to this question (with some respondents offering more than one classifiable view). There were those who felt that such affective attributes as attitude, enthusiasm, desirable personal qualities and the like can and should be assessed alongside the students' practical performance (5 respondents). On the other hand, a number of respondents felt that they were competent to judge only those activities that could be demonstrated by unambiguous performance measures such as accuracy, thoroughness, comprehension, ability to follow instructions and to complete a task (5 respondents).

Six respondents thought that the current assessment procedures were entirely problematic because the library school did not

furnish them with detailed guidelines. As one respondent noted :

Vague references to personal qualities and attitude are of no use

The responsibility for the assessment of students' learning in the fieldwork programme was designated as that of the library school by 4 respondents. Three respondents felt that students should evaluate their own performance and the programme offered by the host institution. The diagnostic view of assessment was expressed by 2 respondents who believed that the most effective learning could be promoted, not by grading the students' performance by some ill-defined criteria, but rather by monitoring their progress, discussing it with them and providing feedback. One of these respondents noted :

The aim of fieldwork is not to examine or assess students' performance. It is to provide opportunities for learning.

Question 7. What is (or should be) the role of the library school in the fieldwork programme?

The consensual response to this question (which elicited as many as 51 statements) can be summed up in one category, viz. communication. For greater precision, the researcher has subdivided this generic category into its component activities and done a frequency count. The category with the highest frequency was the requirement that the library school

formulate and provide guidelines to the host institutions. These guidelines would incorporate advice about what the library school expected the students to cover and what focal areas ought to be incorporated (16 respondents). Associated with the drawing up of guidelines is the recommendation of closer communication and liaison between the library school and the host institutions.

The category with the next highest frequency was the requirement that the library school prepare, brief and motivate the students so that they are better able to respond to and benefit from the programme (11 respondents). Host institutions valued having background information about their fieldwork students and 8 respondents listed the provision of this information as an important responsibility of the library school. Five respondents put a value on receiving feedback and evaluative reports from the library school about the fieldwork programme as experienced by the students. Five respondents felt that students should be "debriefed" after the experience. A carefully planned assessment instrument was identified as an important requisite by 6 respondents.

From the preceding analysis it is clear that the library schools' most important responsibility is to facilitate effective and regular communication among the parties concerned as the following representative quotation neatly summarizes :

The library school should have a clear view of its own aims and objectives regarding fieldwork, and should be able to communicate this to both students and participating institutions. It should also spell out very clearly to participating libraries what qualities should be assessed in the student - and provide a detailed evaluation form for this purpose. The fieldwork should be followed up by an interview with the students to discuss the ratings given to him by the host library.

Question 8. How do you see your role and functions as co-ordinator (or supervisor) in the fieldwork programme?

The 45 responses defining the role of the supervisor (or co-ordinator) fell into two broad categories : administrative and teaching, both of which categories could be further refined into sub-categories. The function with the highest frequency rating was that of developing, implementing and monitoring an effective programme (16 respondents). As part of the successful running of the programme, 4 respondents saw their duty as explaining the programme and motivating staff who were to help in its implementation. Six respondents defined their duty as teaching and explaining, and encouraging learning in students, while 6 other respondents felt that they were responsible for motivating the students to do their best and to adopt a positive attitude. Liaison with the library school was identified by 5 respondents as an important function of the supervisor of the fieldwork programme.

Six respondents saw feedback as an important function : receiving feedback from students and staff (4 respondents) and

providing feedback to library schools (2 repondents). It is noteworthy that no respondent identified giving feedback to students as an important function; the possible reason for this lacuna being that the topic of assessment had been covered in a previous question (Cf Question 6).

One respondent felt that the supervisor should act as a role model for the student (another rare reference to the socialization function of fieldwork) and one respondent felt that the principal duty of the supervisor was "to bring the student down to earth".

Question 9. Can students make a contribution to the host institution during the fieldwork programme? If so, elaborate your answer.

Of the 30 responses to this question, there were two unelaborated negative responses, and 4 qualified positive responses, the reservation being that if students could tackle a routine job without needing constant attention, then they could make a contribution to the host institution. Two respondents replied that they valued the help that students had willingly given in a crisis and two respondents replied that they routinely required students to help them with their "housekeeping jobs" that had piled up.

Apart from the identification of these rather pragmatic contributions, the majority of respondents commented on the more intangible benefits of having fieldwork students. Nine

respondents noted that bright and observant students asked questions which prompted members of staff to examine critically their procedures and approaches, and to consider alternatives. One respondent in this category summarized this influence as "keeping us on our toes". Four respondents reported that fieldwork students had made viable suggestions to improve or streamline procedures. Another four respondents valued the information that students shared with them about current academic and disciplinary developments. One respondent observed that the conditions for this fruitful exchange had to be created :

But to get this input from students the host library must create the right climate. Students must be encouraged to bring new ideas and fresh minds to old problems.

Another representative quotation refers to the association between the disposition of the students and their ability to make a positive contribution to the host institution :

Students can mean a great deal to us if they are committed to doing their best and to feeling that they are part of the team

The general tenor of these responses indicates a positive and welcoming attitude among supervisors towards fieldwork students, particularly those who ask pertinent critical questions, are communicative, energetic and make a positive input into the organization.

Question 10. List some of the strengths and qualities which were characteristic of the students on fieldwork whom you thought were successful.

This question elicited 71 statements which were classified into 9 categories. The quality with the highest frequency was a combination of enthusiasm and interest (19 respondents). Respondents observed that these two qualities seemed to have a positive association with learning, a finding that is consistent with learning theory. These qualities also render the student/supervisor relationship more agreeable and productive.

The quality with the second highest frequency was the attribute of a critical and enquiring mind (11 respondents) (Cf results of Question 9). Nine respondents rated willingness to work hard as a quality desirable in a fieldwork student. Eight respondents associated good interpersonal and communicative skills with successful fieldwork students, while 7 respondents identified a keenness to learn as an important quality.

Sharing a ranking with keenness to learn was being prepared for the fieldwork (7 respondents). Respondents noted that those students who had informed themselves about the host institution, its history and current role were more able to benefit from the fieldwork programme than those who had not. Six respondents appreciated intelligence and quickness to

grasp instructions and procedures. Four respondents appreciated initiative and an ability to work independently.

Question 11. List any advice you would like to give prospective fieldwork students.

The results of this question can be constructively read together with the results of the preceding question because together they form a composite picture, from the perspective of the host library, of the ways in which a student might handle fieldwork successfully and promote an effective learning experience. (It will be noted that there is a close relationship in some cases between the categories in Question 10 and 11.) There was a total of 59 statements, comprising 9 categories.

The category with the highest frequency rating was that students should approach the experience with a positive attitude (10 respondents). The category that was ranked next in frequency was that students should be instructed in professional etiquette, e.g. the importance of being punctual, the need to dress neatly and to observe the common courtesies expected of colleagues working together in an institution (9 respondents). Eight respondents advised that students should prepare themselves for the experience by finding out about the host institution, its particular role and special features (8 respondents; Cf results of Question 10).

Seven respondents advised students to ask questions : "We won't think that you are ignorant". The constructive use of time was advised by 6 respondents who recommended such measures as looking and listening carefully, and filling any spare time by intelligent observation or asking how they might help. Six respondents advised that students should be co-operative and listen to their supervisors and others in authority.

The benefits of active involvement, participation and communication were pointed out by 5 respondents who believed that the students would get a good sense of what it is like to be working in an institution if they involved themselves willingly in its activities. This advice is summarized in the following representative quotation :

They should view the fieldwork as a mutual learning experience, rather than as a passive process, participate fully in whatever social life the library offers, even if this is limited to tea sessions

Students were advised to be accurate and careful in the performance of the tasks assigned and to bear in mind that mistakes can be costly of staff time and effort to correct, and also sour relations with supervisors (4 respondents). Four respondents pointed out that a pleasant demeanour would facilitate the students' entry into the organization.

From a study of these results two broad categories are discernible :

- strategies to enhance learning (36 suggestions)
- strategies to cope with the institutional and social demands of the situation (23 suggestions)

(Note the remarkable coincidence of many of these categories of advice with the advice given to "newcomers" by students in both cases reported in Sections 5.12 and 6.12 respectively).

The following statements are quoted because they offer sage advice providing a different and instructive perspective :

Treat fieldwork as one long interview as quite often the librarian is assessing you as a prospective employee

Don't be too important to put on a pair of flat shoes and an overall and help with the hard physical work - it does wonders for esprit-de-corps which fieldwork should be aiming at

Many jobs in the library are not strictly speaking 'professional' and are rather boring, e.g. shelving, shelf reading, checking catalogue cards, filing catalogue cards etc. Students who are not keen to do these jobs, or who do them badly, in my opinion, will not make successful librarians.

Question 12. How do you think the fieldwork programme might be improved?

Although the suggestions in response to this question were not very numerous it should be borne in mind that implicit suggestions for improvement were made in response to various

other questions, e.g. Questions 5, 6 and 7. A total of 42 suggestions were made. All of the responses (with one exception) could be classified into the general category of improved communication. This generic category could be further divided into the following sub-categories :

- improved and regular communication and liaison between the library schools and the host institutions (12 respondents)
- improved definition of aims and objectives for fieldwork, to be incorporated into clear and comprehensive guidelines (9 respondents)
- proper evaluation of the programme with feedback to the host institutions and to the library schools (7 respondents)
- improved methods of assessment of students according to agreed upon and achievable criteria (7 respondents)
- more time allocated to the the fieldwork programme and better integration with the curriculum, e.g. by students' spending one day a week at a host institution (6 respondents)

There is a positive correlation between these results and the results reported in Questions 5, 6 and 7. With reference to the final suggestion, one respondent summed up rather succinctly the problem of the amount of time currently spent on fieldwork :

Unless a great deal more time is given to fieldwork it's mostly a waste of everybody's time

One very useful suggestion did not fall into any of the above categories, viz. the appointment of certain training libraries that would be accredited to train fieldwork students (2 respondents). One respondent argued the case rather convincingly thus :

This would ensure that the student is properly trained and not being used as an extra pair of hands. It would also ensure that a correct programme of training is adhered to.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The intention of this chapter is to establish broad patterns, themes, and major analytic concepts that are common to both cases (based on the evidence of all the data) and to determine, and, if possible, account for differences. In this section, in the interests of avoiding repetition, the researcher has not compared the findings reported in each section of the analysis of each case. A synthetic approach has been adopted so as to enable the researcher to discuss the major dimensions, correlate and integrate comparisons made arising from all the available evidence, including the conceptual analysis, and make recommendations based on these conclusions. This integrative approach has been made possible by the research design which accommodated the following features :

- the strategy of combining quantitative and qualitative methods (Cf Section 4.10)
- the interpretation of results by adopting the interpretive paradigm (Cf Section 4.8.2)
- the examination of a wide range of variables (Cf Section 4.11)

The following framework has been devised around which the major dimensions are identified and discussed :

- enabling conditions of the programmes
- outcomes of the programme
- recommendations arising from the above

In addition, the researcher will discuss the global responses of the students to the programmes and propose a model of fieldwork.

8.1 Enabling conditions

Here the the findings concerning the two programmes under the heading of enabling conditions (and by contrast, those factors that militated against effectiveness) are reported.

8.1.1 Communication

Communication with students and host institutions emerged as a a major indicator contributing to the effectiveness of the programmes in this investigation. As a major implementation variable, it was inadequate in Case A, and effective in Case B (Cf Sections 5.4 and 6.5 respectively). This category can be broken down into the following sub-categories :

- briefing of students
- guidelines to the host institutions
- feedback
- student assessment

8.1.1.1 Briefing of students

Students in Case B responded more favourably to this process which was an important variable in their programme than did students in Case A who viewed the process as problematic because of its inadequacy (Cf Table 45 in Section 6.7.2; and Table 24 in Section 5.7.3 and Section 5.11.1 respectively). (Cf also the results of Questions 5 and 7 of the questionnaire sent to supervisors as reported in Chapter 7).

Recommendation

It is recommended that students be carefully briefed and motivated for the fieldwork experience, as the results of the study have demonstrated the potential for more effective learning when students are prepared and understand their roles, rights and responsibilities.

Comment : This recommendation is consistent with findings in the literature, both relating to field experience in teacher education (Cf findings of Ross, Hughes & Hill (1981) discussed in Section 3.9.2); and experiential learning (Cf Steinaker and Bell's influential model of experiential learning (1977) discussed in Section 3.4.4). It reinforces the recommendation of the SAILIS *Guidelines* relating to the responsibility of the library school (1987 : 28).

According to Schein, the briefing of students performs another useful function, viz. that of countering possible negative socialization effects on students who have difficulty in handling dissonance of values between their formal teaching programme and what they encounter in practice (1967 : 619; Section 5.9.3). Schein argues that professional schools, in general, should be aware of the forces in host institutions which sometimes challenge the attitudes held by students and communicated by the professional schools; and suggests that they prepare students for the possibility of encountering these difficulties (1967 : 619).

8.1.1.2 Guidelines to host institutions

Related to the issue of communication is the question of the provision of guidelines which proved a source of dissatisfaction with students in Case A who complained about their lack, as opposed to those in Case B who were satisfied with their provision and effectiveness. The use of guidelines was an important variable associated with effectiveness of the programme as experienced by the students (Cf Sections 5.11.1 and 6.5 respectively).

Recommendation

It is recommended that library schools draw up detailed guidelines for the guidance of host institutions.

Comment : This is an effective means of removing uncertainty and possible sources of conflict. They are also a good vehicle for securing greater standardization of the programme, thus eliminating the 'lottery aspect' a term one student used to typify the placement aspect of Case A. The purpose of the guidelines would be to match students' learning experiences and the goals of the programme. In addition, personal communication with host institutions would allow explanation of the rationale and requirements of the programme. Another valuable consequence is that host institutions would better understand their role and important contribution to the teaching programme. Host institutions already exhibit enormous good will by co-operating in the programme. Considerable support for this recommendation comes from the analysis of the supervisors' questionnaires in which the

concept of communication was the dominant theme linking many of the responses and concerns identified by the supervisors (Cf the results of Questions 5, 7 and 12 of the questionnaire reported in Chapter 7.)

This recommendation is also consistent with the findings reported in the literature (Cf Viljoen's conclusion that closer liaison will lead to more effective fieldwork in library and information science (1973; Section 3.1.3); the identification by Berry and Battin of inadequate comprehension and communication as a source of difficulty between educators and professional practitioners in professional education (1983; Section 2.6.1); and the findings of faulty co-ordination between library schools and practitioners by Stallman (1954) and Conant (1980) reported in Section 3.7.1).

It is acknowledged, however, that in Case A there are great logistical problems to improved communication particularly with respect to the wide dispersion of fieldwork sites. However, the greater variety of fieldwork sites is also advantageous to students because it provides them with a desirable range of choices and, consequently, a greater diversity of experience of different working environments.

8.1.1.3 Feedback

The lack of feedback during and after the fieldwork programme was a general source of dissatisfaction with students in Case A, in contrast to those in Case B who were more satisfied because of its provision and incorporation in the programme

(Cf Table 25 in Section 5.7.3, and Section 5.11.1; and Table 44 in Section 6.7.2, and Section 6.10 respectively).

Recommendation

It is recommended that feedback be given regularly to the students during the programme in recognition of an important learning principle (Cf Section 3.9.5 which discusses the importance of feedback in the fieldwork programme). This recommendation can be incorporated in the guidelines.

8.1.1.4 Assessment

Students in Case A were dissatisfied with the assessment procedures, while students in Case B found them satisfactory. The reason for their dissatisfaction was that they had no access to the assessment reports or even advice based on the reports, whereas students in Case B discussed the assessment reports in broad terms with the lecturers after the programme (Cf Sections 5.3 and 5.11.1; and Sections 6.4 and 6.10 respectively).

Supervisors responding to the questionnaire were divided in their views of the efficacy and reliability of formal assessment procedures (Cf results of Question 6 and 12 reported in Chapter 7). Although attempts have been made to render assessment schedules more objective and accountable (Cf assessment schedules used in Case B as discussed in Section 6.4), the researcher concludes that formal assessment is a contested area that cannot be definitively resolved without further research. Summative assessment (i.e the assigning of

a grade according to performance) is, in the researcher's opinion, of less value than formative or diagnostic assessment (i.e. designed to offer guidance and help the student recognize areas that need attention) (Cf Stones, 1984 : 19).

Recommendation

Research needs to be done on the most efficient, effective and valid ways of evaluating students' performance in fieldwork.

Comment : An integration of approaches is likely to provide a valid, reliable and objective assessment, particularly if one recalls that the other components of the library schools' courses are rigorously assessed against substantive criteria with controls exercised by external examiners.

Friedenberg's approach to assessment of field experience in professional education is worth noting. He claims that few would question the value of field experience if students were evaluated according to their ability to analyse and reflect on it by way of a report (1973 : 53). This is the approach favoured by the researcher because it answers the requirement that the student be awarded a grade for the fieldwork performance (Cf SAILIS, 1987 : 27). Provisionally it is suggested that affective learning can be assessed and discussed in a seminar, a more suitable vehicle for this purpose. The issues of the report written by the student and the seminar are discussed in another context (Cf Section 8.2.1).

8.1.1.5 Activities

An important dimension of the programme that elicited a great deal of response from the students was the programme of activities, with students in both cases reporting a general disinclination to perform clerical or routine tasks (Cf Table 21 in Section 5.7.3; and Table 51 in Section 6.7.2 respectively) and all students reporting the value of having a planned programme of activities which allowed for active involvement and participation (Cf Sections 5.11.3 and 6.11.3).

Recommendation

The major recommendation is that the programme of activities be devised as a collaborative exercise between the library school and the host institutions, where possible, so that the activities might be articulated with the curriculum.

Comment : In Case B, for example, the design of the university library programme of activities, closely linked to learning objectives related to the curriculum, was an exemplar in this regard. The empirical evidence in both cases points to the importance of designing a programme of activities informed by a clear educational rationale and with due regard for the balance of tasks, bearing in mind the potential socializing effects of performance of tasks in a work setting (Cf Section 5.9.3). The programme should be structured and sequenced in such a way as to obviate unproductive repetition and provide for diversity and representativeness.

The researcher recognizes a practical problem in this respect : the fact that in many institutions the activities arranged for the students might be contingent upon the day-to-day activities and the exigencies of the supervisor's schedule (This was more evident in Case A : Cf Question 11 in Section 5.7.3.) Given the division of opinion among the supervisors on the issue of allocation of clerical and non-skilled tasks (each position supported by sound reasons), the pragmatic solution is that there should be a balance between tasks with an educational and professional relevance for the student, and those serving the convenience of the institution. (Cf the results of Question 4 of the supervisors' questionnaire reported in Chapter 7, and the strictures noted in the literature regarding the performance of clerical tasks in fieldwork in Section 3.7.4).

8.1.1.6 Supervisory role

The role of supervision is one that needs careful analysis, as this was identified by all students as a critical factor in both cases (Cf Sections 5.11.4 and 6.11.4). Most students enjoyed positive relationships with supervisors, for which they expressed their appreciation (Cf Table 13 in Section 5.7.3; and Table 44 in Section 6.7.2). There were instances in Case A, however, where relationships with supervisors were unsatisfactory with negative effects on the students' attitudes (Cf Table 13 in Section 5.7.3).

It was clear from the evidence that there is a great deal of latitude in the interpretation of the role of the supervisor.

From the empirical findings, it appears that the assessment function seems to be most problematic, particularly in Case A (Cf Section 8.1.1.4). The findings emerging from the analysis of the supervisors' perspective on the supervisory role revealed the constraints of their role. Analysis also revealed that they took their role very seriously and showed concern that it should be as effective as possible (Cf results of Questions 5, 7, 8 and 12 of the supervisors' questionnaire reported in Chapter 7.)

At present the role of the supervisor is conceptually ill-defined and no pedagogical theory of supervision in fieldwork in education for library and information science has been developed, as there has been with considerable success in teaching practice (cf Goldhammer et al (1980), pioneers of the increasingly adopted model of clinical supervision in teaching practice). The latter model was developed by Goldhammer and his colleagues at Harvard in the late 1950's when there was no theory or concept of the professional practice of supervision which thus lacked any conventions or guiding principles (1980 : 38).

Recommendation

It is recommended that a model of supervision of the fieldwork programme be developed, such as that based on the model of Goldhammer et al (1980) which has broader applications than the context of teaching practice.

Comment : In the interim, consultation between the library schools and host institutions should take place so that a provisional model of supervision can be formulated, incorporating such guidance and pedagogical skills identified as important and effective. Library schools and host institutions need to consult jointly on supervisory aims. The role of the supervisor might be restructured in such a way as to emphasize the supportive and guidance functions and de-emphasize the assessment function (Cf recommendation in Section 8.1.1.4). Training workshops for supervisors should be run jointly by library schools and the host institutions, many of whom have considerable and valuable expertise in training programmes for new recruits.

The following difficulties of the supervisory role in fieldwork are acknowledged :

- heavy workload of the incumbents and no resources to provide relief for the arduous duties of supervision
- no prior training for a role for which no provision is made in their formal education training programme

8.2 Outcomes

In this section the researcher will discuss the outcomes of the programmes under broad headings, supplying comparative evidence where appropriate. To conclude the section, she will attempt to summarize and account for the differences and similarities in patterns of responses in each case, both as to outcomes, and as to the dimensions of the programme discussed in Section 8.1.

8.2.1 Learning outcomes

Students in both cases reported similar categories of positive learning outcomes, viz. cognitive outcomes and gains in insight (Cf Sections 5.10.2 and 6.10.1 respectively). Students in Case B reported greater confidence that the link between theory and practice had been actualized, while students in Case A were less satisfied with this outcome (Cf Sections 6.10.1 and 5.10.2 respectively). It is not possible to draw definitive conclusions relating to specific, isolated factors which impacted on this particular learning outcome.

8.2.2 Theory/Practice relationship

According to the literature and conventional wisdom, the chief rationale for fieldwork tends to be an instrumental one, with the main objective being the application of theory to practice (Cf the discussion in Section 3.3). The cumulative evidence of both cases reveals that this aim is met with varying degrees of success (in some instances, rather modestly).

The dominant view of the theory/practice relationship is linear, viz. exposition of theory in the classroom, followed by application in practice in an operational environment. In his seminal study of professional disciplines (though not specifically including library and information science) Schon has pointed out that this conception of the relationship between theory and practice which views theory as the real knowledge and practice as instrumental problem-solving (the technical-rationality model) is a very powerful paradigm in programmes of professional education in general which tend to

emphasize it to the neglect of other aspects that are important, e.g. "reflective practice" (1983 : 42).

The limited technical-rationality conception, as described by Schon, tends to view fieldwork as an opportunity for applying general principles, derived from a base of systematic knowledge, to the skills of practice. The mechanistic view of this sequential relationship contributes to the routinization of fieldwork, thus further reinforcing the dichotomy between theory and practice. (It is contended that Schon's views may well apply equally to library and information science, since his comments refer to professional education programmes in general.)

The results of this study revealed and highlighted the central dilemma of professional education : the relationship between theory and practice. The results were mixed. On the one hand, there was evidence confirming Schon's thesis of the dominance of the technical-rationality model (1983). Technocratic rationality is concerned with method and efficiency rather than with purpose (Zeichner, 1981-1982 : 7). In this study, there is evidence for this approach among students in both Case A and Case B (Cf Sections 5.10.2 and 5.10.3; and Sections 6.10 and 6.10.2 respectively). However, it is noteworthy that a significant minority of students discerned the interactive relationship of theory and practice (Cf Sections 5.10.2 and 5.10.3). It should be noted at this point, that the head of department in Case B proposed that a measure of the success of the programme is evident from the

fact that students could bring their practical experience back to class and incorporate it in theory-building : a classic view of the interactive relationship between theory and practice. This model of knowledge is referred to by Eraut as associative knowledge, a dimension, he claims, that is neglected in the analysis of practical experience (1985 : 15).

While there is doubtless an important role for the application of principles to practice, a broader view (of which elements are already in place in the programme) would enhance the value of fieldwork such that the concept of fieldwork be extended from a method of applying principles to practice, thereby, incidentally, emphasizing the linear relationship of theory and practice, to one that encourages students to discover the interactive relationship between theory and practice (Cf the theoretical discussion of this relationship in Section 2.5.3).

Recommendation

Drawing on recent conceptual developments made in the study of the role of reflection in professional practice, and empirical applications, especially in practice teaching (Cf Schon 1983; Elliott, 1976 and Zeichner & Lister, 1987) the researcher recommends that students be encouraged to reflect on practice as experienced in fieldwork and to relate it to moral and political dimensions which shape it.

Comment : The seminar is a very good vehicle for reflective and analytical discourse (Cf Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) who comment on its value in integrating experiential and formal

learning in Section 3.4.2; and Coburn (1980) and Monroe (1981) who commend its use in fieldwork in library and information science in Section 3.9.5.2).

Another good vehicle for reflection and analysis is the report to be written by students, aspects of which can be discussed in the seminar where all students can share insights and the teacher can assist the students to find meanings (Cf Section 8.1.1.4). The seminar will have the function of assisting students to shift from abstraction to concrete learning and back to abstraction, thus emphasizing the dialectical relationship between theory and practice (Cf recommendations by students of Case A reported in Section 5.11.1; and discussion of the dialectical relationship in Section 2.5.3).

To sum up the role of reflection and to justify its incorporation into the fieldwork programme, the researcher appeals to the authority of Dewey :

Reflection emancipates us from merely impulsive and routine activity and enables us to direct our actions with foresight and to plan according to ends in view of purposes of which we are aware. It enables us to know what we are about when we act (1933 : 17).

8.2.3 Socialization

The fieldwork programme exercised a socializing influence in both cases (Cf Sections 5.9 and 6.9), with students in Case B experiencing a greater continuity between the formal teaching programme and the fieldwork (Cf Section 6.9) and the students in Case A experiencing greater levels of dissonance between

classroom and field (Cf Section 5.9.3). Evidence of positive effects of socialization was present in both cases, e.g. career relevance, opportunities for "reality testing" and the increased appreciation of the dimensions and complexities of professional practice (Cf Sections 5.9.1.2, 5.9.2; and 6.9.3 respectively).

Although the socialization process has received ample analytical attention in preceding chapters, reference is made here to supportive evidence from the supervisors' questionnaires. The analysis of these data confirm the researcher's conclusion that the socialization process is an interactive one (as demonstrated particularly with reference to Case A) with a significant number of supervisors confirming her conclusion (Cf results of Questions 9 and 11 of the questionnaire reported in Chapter 7 which confirm the finding reported in Section 5.9.6).

Recommendation

It is recommended that the process of socialization and some of the related issues that have been clarified in this study be researched by means of longitudinal investigations that examine the stages of socialization from the start of formal professional education for library and information science to the first years of employment.

Comment : This is a neglected topic and one of great importance in the education and training of professionals involved in the delivery of human services.

8.3 Students' response

Specific reference is made here to broad patterns of response, while specific aspects have been compared in the preceding sections. A comparison of the attitude indices as evident from the analysis of the questionnaires reveals a wider range of scores in Case A than in Case B (Cf Table 1 in Section 5.7.2, and Table 32 in Section 6.7.1). It has been assumed that the observations are not sufficiently clearcut and conclusive to warrant the articulation of recommendations for every single aspect included in the questionnaires.

In general the students in Case B had a more uniformly positive response than those in Case A. These responses were evident in many of the dimensions measured in the questionnaires, many of which have been commented on in preceding sections (Cf Tables 33, 34, 38 and 46 in Sections 6.7.1 and 6.7.2; and Tables 2, 3, 7 and 15 in Sections 5.7.2 and 5.7.3 respectively).

As demonstrated above, the response to the fieldwork programme tended to be more favourable and uniform in Case B, while the analysis of Case A yielded a richer diversity of results in terms of range, differences, subtleties and complexity of response; interpretation of these complex findings being made possible by the research methodologies adopted (Cf Section 4.11).

An analysis of the programmes as they were conceived and implemented revealed a greater coincidence between

programmatic intent and rationale and actual implementation in Case B than in Case A. The differences in specification of clear objectives, planning, preparation, programming and placements are not, however, the only attributable factors to account for the generally more favourable responses in Case B, although these factors have been prominently identified as important variables. The analysis and comparison of results have indicated that the following factors are implicated in the difference in global attitudes to the programmes in the two cases :

- difference in size of the the two classes, affecting opportunities for placement
- the limited number of placements in Case B, allowing for greater control
- good levels of communication between the library school and host institutions in Case B
- synergistic relationship between the university library and library school in Case B and the positive and powerful impact of the university library fieldwork programme on 4th-year students
- larger number of fieldwork sites in Case A leading to :
 - * consequent difficulties in communication between the library school and host institutions and
 - * reduced opportunities for monitoring and control
- poorer levels of communication and preparation both of students and host institutions in Case A (exacerbated by geographical dispersion of fieldwork sites, including one in Europe). (Cf advantages of having a wider choice of fieldwork sites referred to in Section 8.1.1.2.)

Analysis uncovered other underlying important factors, whose impact the researcher has not been able to determine, because they fell outside the bounds of the study. The following differences, which at this stage are speculative in the absence of firm empirical support, have been provisionally identified by the researcher as exercising an influence :

- differences in the cohorts of students
 - * different academic milieu and ethos, a powerful determinant in students' approach and response to the programme (Cf discussion in Section 2.6.1)
 - * different teaching programmes with differing emphases and orientations - a fieldwork programme cannot be viewed as an isolated unit in the teaching programme (Cf Chapter 2)
 - * relatively homogeneous group in Case B
 - * very heterogeneous group in Case A
 - * different academic backgrounds in each case : students in Case B tended to be young undergraduates, while students in Case A were mostly graduates, many with a variety of working experience prior to joining the class (including experience in libraries)

Many of these factors could also account for the rather more critical stance adopted by students in Case A which would in turn be reflected in more unfavourable attitudes. The provisional indications are that these factors are indeed likely to play a role. Although the above-mentioned factors have not been specifically explored in this study, they represent a potentially productive line of inquiry for further

research into student learning and professional socialization, as impacted by such variables.

However, the greater degree of negativity in Case A was offset by a generally insightful, incisive and constructively critical approach to the programme - a factor which added depth to the researcher's understanding and interpretation of the programme. Such understanding would not have been possible if the researcher had relied on a simple computation of attitude indices correlated with a limited number of variables, which might have led to a simplistic judgment that the programme in Case A was not really successful in reaching all of its stated aims (Cf reasons for rejecting the objectives approach to evaluation research in Section 4.6.1). The finding is more complex : while students were able to identify conditions and factors that were less than ideal, the fieldwork programme was, in fact, a rich learning experience for most of them in spite of some of the negative responses identified. (Cf the rationale for adopting an eclectic research design, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methodologies as discussed in Section 4.10 and 4.11).

In spite of the different pattern of responses characteristic of each case, there have been striking resemblances in the emergence of concepts and the salience of common themes. Meanings and understanding of the experience were shared in many instances across the two cases, emphasizing a significant degree of intersubjectivity which confirms the value of

adopting the constructivist approach which allows the researcher access to the meanings and constructions of the participants of the experience (Cf Section 4.8.2) and increasing the opportunity for generalization in spite of the demonstrated differences in the collective disposition of students, programmes and placements (Cf Section 4.13 which discusses strategies for generalizations in the case study).

There was a remarkable degree of correspondence, for example, between ideal features of a fieldwork programme identified by students in both cases : the construction of an ideal programme by students in Case A appearing to be a virtual analogue of that constructed by students in Case B (Cf Section 5.11 and 6.11 respectively).

The most strikingly consistent result in the two cases related to the identification of qualities of effective supervisory behaviour. (Cf Sections 5.11.4 and 6.11.4 respectively in which consensus is reached by students in each case on the profile of the ideal supervisor). Comparison of findings relating, for example, to the category "advice to a newcomer" again revealed a common perspective adopted by students in both cases where the advice with the highest frequency would be the adoption of a positive approach (Cf Sections 5.12 and 6.12 respectively).

8.4 Model of fieldwork

By integrating the findings from both cases by way of cross-site comparison, the researcher has been able to make a tentative reconstruction of fieldwork as a learning experience. Taking the findings together, combining evidence from the questionnaires, interviews and other data sources (e.g. documentary, lecturers' views, and supervisors' views etc.) it has been possible to construct a model with variables identified. The model is not intended, however, as a recipe for a successful fieldwork programme but rather as a heuristic device for programme planners and implementers. It should be noted that the relationships between the clusters of variables in the first two blocks cannot be precisely delineated, and that, in some cases the relationships will be symmetrical. In combination the complex of these variables will result in the outcomes outlined in the third block.

Model of fieldwork

<u>Factors</u>	<u>Institutional setting</u>	<u>Outcomes</u>
Academic milieu	Ethos	Gains
Library school	Rules	*students'
*academic programme		*hosts'
*briefing students	Norms	*library school
*guidelines to hosts		Effects
*debriefing students	Staff	*planned
Students	*supervisors	*unanticipated
*motivation	*others	*positive
*career orientation	Programme	*negative
*knowledge/skills	*characteristics	
	*tasks	
	*assessment	
	*feedback	

8.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, it needs to be stated that the researcher has not been able to make a definitive judgment of the effectiveness of the fieldwork programme in general or in the two cases in particular by, for example, computing an exact index of effectiveness. By employing the interpretive paradigm of research (Cf Section 4.8.2) she has explored the problems, realities and issues faced by students in the programme and uncovered some of the complexities and nuances of fieldwork as a learning experience. As a result, she concurs with Zeichner's finding that fieldwork experiences in professional education "seem to entail a complicated set of both positive and negative consequences that are often subtle in nature" (1980(b) : 47). She nonetheless recommends the retention of the fieldwork programme as a potentially rewarding experience, given certain conditions identified in the preceding paragraphs; bearing in mind the practical realities of the situation of the library schools and the host institutions; and attempting to balance the requirements of the library schools, the individual needs of students and the needs of the host institutions which are increasingly experiencing scarce resources and budgetary constraints.

It is hoped that the significance of the findings will go beyond the explicitly expressed recommendations (Cf Sections 8.1 and 8.2) thus contributing to a more general understanding of fieldwork in library and information science education as a complex learning experience. Moreover, the researcher hopes that the study has demonstrated the viability of an innovative

research design that has incorporated a combination of research methodologies, thereby making a methodological contribution to the field of programme evaluation in professional education for library and information science.

APPENDIX 1FIELDWORK REPORT

Students are requested to complete a fieldwork report and to hand it in to the Fieldwork Co-Ordinator at the School of Librarianship by 24 April 1987. The main purpose of this report (in the form of a questionnaire) is to gather factual information concerning the fieldwork placement with regard to type, variety and scope of tasks and activities undertaken during the session. An opportunity for students' evaluation of the programme as a whole will be provided once all the sessions have been completed. This report will contribute to research for a Ph.D being undertaken by Mary Nassimbeni who is investigating the purpose and value of fieldwork in the educational programme. Please fill in your answers on this form. All information will be treated in confidence.

1. Name of student ...
2. Course and year of study ...
3. Date of fieldwork session ...
4. Name of library or information centre ...
5. Type of library or information centre. Please tick the appropriate box :

- Public
- National
- School
- Special

Identify the client group :.....

- Technikon
- University
- Other (please specify)

6. Was there an introduction to the library and/or the fieldwork session by way of a briefing or explanatory session with supervising librarian(s) ?

6.1 If yes, please describe briefly the nature and format e.g. length of talk, indication of special rules, regulations, instructions, duties, rights, provision of advice etc.

7 Could you identify a supervising officer whose duty it is to take overall co-ordination of the week's fieldwork programme ?

7.1 If your answer is yes, please describe the supervisor's role in your fieldwork programme.....

8. Give an estimate of the percentage of time spent on observation (as distinguished from performing tasks or activities)

9. Was your placement in a single-person or very small library with only two or three members of staff ?

9.1 If your answer is no, which departments did you visit or work in ? Please indicate by ticking the appropriate block.

- Acquisitions department

- Branch library

Please name the branch

- Cataloguing department

- Head Office

- Interlibrary loans

- Periodicals department

- Reference/Information section

- Other (please specify)

10. Please indicate the nature of tasks performed or activities engaged in. Indicate amount of time spent in hours on each task/activity in the appropriate block :

- acquisitions

- bibliographic checking

(e.g. checking authors/titles in catalogues, bibliographic tools etc.)

- book reviewing / book selection

- cataloguing/classifying

- children's work

- circulation desk

- meetings attended (e.g. book selection meetings)

specify type of meeting

- online searching

- other (please specify)

11. Did you undertake, or were you involved in any special project of a more advanced professional nature e.g.

- identification of gaps in reference collection, or section of collection (e.g. Social sciences section)
- compilation of special bibliography

11.1 If your answer is yes, please identify the project and indicate in hours the amount of time spent on the special project

Description of project

12. Please attach any supporting documentation provided by the host library (e.g. guidelines on fieldwork etc.)

13. Please add further comments on this fieldwork placement if you so wish

Signed :

Date :

NOTE : FOR REASONS OF ECONOMY OF SPACE, THIS AND ALL OTHER APPENDICES HAVE BEEN EDITED, LEAVING OUT THE SPACES THAT WOULD NORMALLY BE PROVIDED FOR COMMENT.

APPENDIX 2QUESTIONNAIRE : FIELDWORK

This questionnaire forms part of research for a Ph.D. degree being done at the University of Cape Town (School of Librarianship) by Mary Nassimbeni. The aim of the questionnaire is to gather information about your experiences, thoughts and attitudes relating to the fieldwork programme. The questionnaire will give you the opportunity of evaluating the programme and offering your opinion on the role and value of fieldwork. Strict anonymity will be maintained. Your responses will in no way affect your results in the examinations or prejudice your position either with the School of Librarianship or with the libraries/information centres which hosted your fieldwork sessions. Your participation is voluntary.

Part A

This part of the questionnaire attempts to establish your opinions of the fieldwork programme as a whole. Your responses should reflect your feelings about the fieldwork programme in general, as a component of the entire course. PLEASE INDICATE YOUR OPINION ABOUT EACH OF THE STATEMENTS BY CIRCLING

SA IF YOU STRONGLY AGREE

A IF YOU AGREE

U IF YOU ARE UNCERTAIN

D IF YOU DISAGREE

SD IF YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE

1. In my opinion my time and effort
was well spent on this learning
experience

SA A U D SD

2. The fieldwork programme offered
me an opportunity to apply
principles to practice

SA A U D SD

3. The programme was an
unrewarding learning experience

SA A U D SD

4. The programme allowed me to
develop and practise communication
skills

SA A U D SD

5. I can now relate to the subject
matter of my whole course of
studies from a wider perspective

SA A U D SD

6. The fieldwork programme was a
meaningful learning experience

SA A U D SD

7. The programme helped me to
develop a new approach to learning

SA A U D SD

8. I now feel more aware of the
needs of users of libraries/
information centres

SA A U D SD

9. I would like to have spent more
time on the fieldwork programme

SA A U D SD

10. The programme helped me achieve
a deeper understanding of library
and information science

SA A U D SD

11. If fieldwork were an optional
component of the course, I would
choose not to go

SA A U D SD

12. The programme has helped me
integrate theoretical and practical
aspects of the course

SA A U D SD

13. Participating in the programme
made little difference to me

SA A U D SD

14. During the fieldwork programme
I learned to understand new
and different viewpoints

SA A U D SD

15. The fieldwork programme offered
me an opportunity to use my
own initiative

SA A U D SD

16. Students doing fieldwork are
used as cheap labour

SA A U D SD

17. The fieldwork experience has
made my classroom learning seem
more relevant

SA A U D SD

18. I developed more confidence in
myself and my ability as a result of
the fieldwork programme

SA A U D SD

19. The fieldwork programme should
be withdrawn from the course

SA A U D SD

20. The fieldwork programme
encouraged independent thinking

SA A U D SD

21. The programme was a challenging
learning experience

SA A U D SD

22. My fieldwork experience was
irrelevant to my learning needs

SA A U D SD

23. I developed professional skills
needed in library and information work

SA A U D SD

24. I developed greater awareness
of practical problems related to
library and information work

SA A U D SD

25. Fieldwork is less useful than
the other components of the course

SA A U D SD

26. My own learning objectives were
achieved by the fieldwork programme

SA A U D SD

27. I feel more interested in the
course as a whole as a result of
fieldwork

SA A U D SD

Part B

This section is designed to establish your opinions of particular aspects of your experiences during the fieldwork programme. PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION OR STATEMENT BY CIRCLING ONE OF THE RESPONSE OPTIONS PROVIDED. ADD ANY EXPLANATIONS, QUALIFICATIONS OR COMMENTS WHERE CONSIDERED NECESSARY (FOR EXAMPLE THE STATEMENT MIGHT BE TRUE OF ONE OR MORE PLACEMENTS BUT NOT OTHERS).

1. I was encouraged to offer opinions and constructive criticism on the institution, the department or branch where I was assigned

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

PLEASE EXPLAIN

2. Has the fieldwork changed your opinion of what a librarian/information worker does ?

- Yes
- No
- Uncertain

PLEASE EXPLAIN

3. Did the fieldwork programme shed light on the following professional matters to your satisfaction ? PLEASE CIRCLE "YES", "NO" OR "UNCERTAIN"

(a) Current practice in library

and information science	Yes	No	Uncertain
-------------------------	-----	----	-----------

(b) Career prospects

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

(c) Management practice and style

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

(d) Organization of libraries /

information centres	Yes	No	Uncertain
---------------------	-----	----	-----------

(e) Relationship between

libraries/information centres

and their users

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

(f) Relationship between theory

and practice

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

(g) Relationship between library
and information science and other
academic areas (e.g. sociology
and psychology)

Yes No Uncertain

(h) User needs and behaviour

Yes No Uncertain

(i) Professional values

Yes No Uncertain

(j) Practical skills

Yes No Uncertain

(k) Information technology

Yes No Uncertain

4. Has the fieldwork programme had any effect on your career
plans ?

- Yes
- No
- Uncertain

PLEASE ELABORATE.....

5. Have your expectations of fieldwork been fulfilled ?

- Yes
- No
- Uncertain

PLEASE GIVE REASONS

6. Have your expectations about the course as a whole been fulfilled ?

- Yes
- No
- Uncertain

PLEASE EXPLAIN

7. As a result of the fieldwork programme I feel more positive about my chosen profession

- Yes
- No
- Uncertain

PLEASE EXPLAIN.....

8. How would you describe your supervision during the fieldwork programme ? CIRCLE ONE RESPONSE

- Generally satisfactory
- Sometimes satisfactory
- Sometimes unsatisfactory
- Generally unsatisfactory

PLEASE EXPLAIN

9. I had a clear idea of what was expected of me during the fieldwork programme

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

PLEASE ELABORATE

10. Which of the following terms most accurately reflects your evaluation of the fieldwork programme ? CIRCLE ONE TERM

- Excellent
- Good
- Adequate
- Poor
- Very poor
- Other (SPECIFY)

PLEASE ELABORATE YOUR ANSWER.....

11. The fieldwork programme was well organized by the individual institutions

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

PLEASE ELABORATE

12. If you were asked to rate your performance in the fieldwork programme, how would you rate it ? CIRCLE ONE ANSWER

- Very successful
- Successful
- Unsuccessful
- Very unsuccessful
- Uncertain

PLEASE EXPLAIN YOUR ANSWER BY GIVING A REASON (OR REASONS) FOR YOUR RESPONSE

13. What do you consider to be the main weakness(es) of the fieldwork programme ?.....

14. What do you consider to be the most beneficial feature(s) of the fieldwork programme ?.....

15. What did you like most about doing fieldwork ?.....

16. What did you like least about doing fieldwork ?

17. Which of the following terms describes the work, in general, you were given ? CIRCLE ONE RESPONSE IN EACH SET

- Too much

- Satisfactory

- Too little

- Interesting

- Dull

- Both

- Too easy

- Suitable

- Too difficult

- Varied

- Repetitive

- Both

PLEASE EXPLAIN

18. High standards of performance were set
- Yes
 - No
 - Sometimes
 - Uncertain

PLEASE EXPLAIN

19. The objectives and requirements of the fieldwork programme were communicated clearly and explicitly by the Library School
- Yes
 - No
 - Partially

PLEASE ELABORATE

20. The supervising librarian(s) suggested specific ways I could improve my performance
- Yes
 - No
 - Sometimes

PLEASE ELABORATE

21. I felt motivated to do my best
- Yes
 - No
 - Sometimes

PLEASE GIVE A REASON OR REASONS FOR YOUR ANSWER

22. What do you think of the timing of the fieldwork sessions ?
- Satisfactory
 - Unsatisfactory
 - Uncertain

PLEASE GIVE A REASON OR REASONS FOR YOUR ANSWER

23. If fieldwork were omitted from the course, the course would be

- More enjoyable
- Less enjoyable
- Uncertain

- More useful
- Less useful
- Uncertain

- More interesting
- Less interesting
- Uncertain

- No different
- Different
- Uncertain

CIRCLE ONE RESPONSE IN EACH SET

24. The following is a list of possible aims for an ideal fieldwork programme. PLEASE RATE EACH ONE ON A SCALE ACCORDING TO YOUR ESTIMATE OF ITS IMPORTANCE BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER REPRESENTING THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE.

(SCALE : 5 = VERY IMPORTANT

4 = IMPORTANT

3 = FAIRLY IMPORTANT

2 = UNIMPORTANT

1 = NOT AN ACCEPTABLE AIM)

(a) To instil confidence	1	2	3	4	5
(b) To perform basic technical skills	1	2	3	4	5
(c) To illustrate material taught in class	1	2	3	4	5
(d) To familiarize students with tools and routines of library and information work	1	2	3	4	5
(e) To instil professional attitudes	1	2	3	4	5
(f) To provide the link between theory and practice	1	2	3	4	5
(g) To develop problem-solving skills	1	2	3	4	5
(h) To practise communication skills	1	2	3	4	5
(i) To develop independent learning	1	2	3	4	5

(j) To learn about the organization of libraries and information centres	1	2	3	4	5
(k) To provide a break from formal classes	1	2	3	4	5
(l) To observe good practice	1	2	3	4	5
(m) To observe good librarians and information workers at work	1	2	3	4	5
(n) To vary teaching methods	1	2	3	4	5
(o) To expose students to various working environments	1	2	3	4	5
(p) To provide students with professional contacts	1	2	3	4	5
(q) To test students' suitability for the profession	1	2	3	4	5
(r) To learn about user needs and behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
(s) To test students' practical ability	1	2	3	4	5

25. Do you have any suggestions about how the programme might be improved ?

26. If there is any aspect of the fieldwork programme not covered in the questionnaire that you would like to comment on, please do so by writing about it in this space

NAME :

PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX 3

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. What did you achieve in this programme ?

Prompt : Is this what you hoped for ?

2. What were the intentions of the Library School?

Prompt : And the those of the host institutions ?

3. Did you achieve their aims ?

Prompt : How do you know ?

Prompt : Was their feedback ?

4. What priority do you think fieldwork has in the Library School ?

5. What do you think about the assessment procedures related to the fieldwork programme ?

Prompt : Did the assessment make any difference to your performance ?

Prompt : In what way ?

Prompt : Do you have any suggestions for changes to assessment procedures ?

6. What professional attitudes did you think were being imparted during the programme ?

Prompt : How did these compare with the values encouraged by the Library School ?

Prompt : Were you aware of institutional norms and requirements ?

7. What are the characteristics of an ideal fieldwork programme ?

Prompt : With respect to the host institution ?

Prompt : With respect to the supervising librarian ?

Prompt : With respect to the programme of activities ?

Prompt : With respect to the role of the Library School ?

8. What did you think your role was in the programme ?

9. Do you think that the fieldwork programme complements the other components of the course ?

10. What were the major difficulties that you experienced during the programme ?

11. Suppose a newcomer to the class asked you what s/he should do to do really well in the programme, what would your advice be ?

APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE : LECTURERS

1. What are the aims and objectives of the fieldwork programme ?
2. What activities do you think will achieve these aims and objectives ?
3. What would you consider as indicators of success in achieving these aims and objectives ?
4. What do you consider to be the most serious obstacles to achieving the aims and objectives ?
5. What procedures are there with respect to assessment of the students' performance ?
6. What procedures are there with respect to supervision and liaison ?
Probe : What role do you think the host library/information centre (and supervising librarian/information worker) should play in the fieldwork programme ?
Probe : What role do you think the library school should play in the fieldwork programme ?
7. Do you believe that the majority of students are satisfied with the fieldwork programme ?

8. Do you have any recommendations for change or improvement in the programme ?

9. What are the most important issues that you think this research project should be addressing ?

APPENDIX 5

CONFIDENTIAL: Comments are treated as confidential, but useful points are passed on to the individual student. Please be as frank as possible so as to further the student's training in librarianship.

FIELDWORK REPORT

Library:

Student:

Period:

BRANCH/DEPT.	TYPE OF WORK DONE	COMMENTS*
--------------	-------------------	-----------

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

* e.g. on performance, attitude to work, suitability for type or work, etc.

F I E L D W O R K

GUIDELINES FOR STUDENTS

When you are the guest of any library for a week or more's fieldwork, please be as cooperative as you can. It should be realised that any new person, such as a student, must inevitably cause a disturbance to the normal routine. We are grateful to those libraries that open their doors to us, and participate in the professional education which the school is trying to give.

Punctuality: Should you be ill or otherwise prevented from turning up at the library to which you are assigned, on any day, please get a message through as early as possible, preferably by telephone, to let the library know what is happening.

Attitude: Do all work cheerfully. Try to be a help, not a hinderance.

Observation: Keep your eyes and ears open to learn as much as possible on the particular library, and librarianship in general. Have a constructively critical approach. No library is perfect, so you cannot expect that any will demonstrate the best in librarianship in all fields. By observing and judging carefully you will learn a great deal.

Avoid volunteering criticisms of any aspect of the library to its librarian and staff. Any comments should be offered with tact, and only if asked for. Do, however, ask for explanations of anything which puzzles you. It may be that there are good reasons for some of the things which you feel like criticising. Naturally you can express admiration of those things which impress you: libraries enjoy having students who show a response to what they are trying to do. It is unlikely that you would omit to thank the people in charge at the end of your week with them, but if there should be any difficulty in finding them to say goodbye I suggest that some message or a note be left.

What to observe:

Organisation: The flow of work; routines; timetables, etc.

Staff: How they are allocated. Professional, sub-professional and non-professional. Other aspects.

Building: Suitability etc. Note arrangements for children, work space for staff, etc.

Stock: Selection. Arrangement and display.

Routines and techniques: Note issue methods, etc. If you are at a headquarters, or in a library which has everything under one roof, take note of the backstage routines for ordering and processing.

Readers: Note the services given to readers in all areas, including information and reference.

Your observations will of course be modified according to whether you are in a service or a backstage department. If you are in a department of a large system try to get the feeling of the system as a whole and not only the one section in which you are placed.

The follow up.

It is not at present our practice to ask students to hand in any written report on their fieldwork. Usually an informal discussion session is arranged in which experiences can be compared. You are recommended to make such notes as you need, as you go along.

APPENDIX 7

STUDENT FIELDWORK

Dear Colleague,

I should like to thank all cooperating libraries for their assistance in over practical experience for our students. The trouble taken over their fieldwork has been much appreciated.

During I should like to avail myself of the same fieldwork facilities as have been so kindly given in the past, and shall be approaching libraries with the names of students in the near future. If there are any particular difficulties in accepting students, I hope that libraries will let me know, so that the arrangements can be varied. Once again I must give the assurance that we accept whatever facilities can be offered, whether a programme designed to move each student through a number of departments, or one in which the student has just one department as "home". All types of experience are useful to the learner, who benefits particularly from a varied and professional programme.

For your convenience the fieldwork dates are given separately on the attached sheet.

Yours sincerely,

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to take our student(s) for the period:

I enclose relevant confidential report form(s) with this, and should be grateful to have the form(s) returned as soon as possible after the completion of the period.

Any comments or suggestions which you would care to make in connection with individual student(s), or in general, would be gratefully received.

Sincerely

Dear

May I ask whether it would be convenient for you to accommodate the following student(s) for fieldwork in your library for the period

Particulars of the student(s) I should like to send are as follows:

.....

.....

.....

I should be glad to receive confirmation from you that you are able to take the student(s), and should be glad to know to whom they should report. The student(s) will be told to report at 9 a.m. on the first morning unless you wish a different time, in which case please telephone ext .

Thank you very much for helping the School of Librarianship in this way.

Yours sincerely

VERSLAG OOR PRAKTYKERVARING

NAAM VAN STUDENT(E): _____

KURSUS: _____

NAAM VAN VERSLAGGEWENDE BIBLIOTEEK: _____

=====

1. DIENSTYDPERK IN BIBLIOTEEK

1.1 Datums: van _____ tot _____

1.2 Totaal aantal ure: _____

1.3 Onderrigdoelstelling: Om aan die student 'n praktiese agtergrond van biblioteekwerk te voorsien ter aanvulling van die meer teoretiese lesings wat sy/hy gedurende die jaar ontvang.

2. EVALUERING (Kyk par. 4 vir beoordelingskaal)2.1 Take in praktyk verrig

INSTANSIE

Datum	Taak	Tyd		Beoor- deling
		Ure	Minute	

=====

Gemiddeld

OMSKRYWING

Beoor-
deling

VERANTWOORDELIKHEID

Pligsbesef t.o.v. uitvoering vantake; belangstelling in werk; oplettendheid; entoesiasme; gretigheid om te leer, volledige afhandeling van take; toegewydheid; stiptelikheid

INSIG

Visie en logiese denke; skerpsinnigheid; snelheid van begrip; vermoë om kennis te benut en toe te pas; situasies te ontleed; te begryp en tot 'n gevolgtrekking te raak; oplossings vir probleme te vind; verbeterings voor te stel

MENSEVERHOUDINGS

Vermoë om goeie menseverhoudings met medestudente, personeel en publiek te bewerkstellig en te handhaaf; leiereienskappe; ander kenmerke soos selfvertroue, takt, onpartydige en objektiewe optrede

ORGANISASIE

Vermoë om uitvoering van take stelselmatig te beplan vir maksimum produksie en minimum tyds- en energiebesteding, koördinering van werksaamhede, ordelike en sistematiese werkwyse

PRODUKTIWITEIT

Hoeveelheid werk binne bepaalde tyd gelewer - ingewikkeldheid en gehalte inaggenome; korrektheid; ywer; volharding; dryfkrag; doelgerigtheid

GEMIDDELD

3. OPMERKINGS

Geagte Student,

PRAKTYKERVARING

Hierdie inligtingstuk is bedoel om die praktykervaring, wat 'n baie belangrike deel van u opleiding vorm, aan u te verduidelik.

1 Wat is die doel van praktykervaring?

Deur middel van praktykervaring wil ons graag twee doelstellings bereik:

- die verruiming van u akademiese kennis; en die
- ontwikkeling van 'n professionele identiteitsgevoel.

2 Hoe gaan hierdie doelstellings bereik word?

U gaan

- op gerigte wyse in aanraking gebring word met die organisasie en dienste van biblioteke en inligtingsentra;
- in 'n werksituasie geplaas word waarin u bepaalde teoretiese kennis in die praktyk kan toepas; en
- u prestasie in die werksituasie gaan op 'n betroubare wyse geevalueer word.

3 Vorme van praktykervaring

3.1 Ononderbroke praktykervaring

Gedurende die derde studiejaar doen u drie weke lank praktykervaring in 'n biblioteek- of inligtingsdiens van u eie keuse. Die persoon aan die hoof moet egter in besit wees van 'n professionele kwalifikasie soos 'n B.Bibl. of H.D.B.

U hoef self geen reelings te tref nie. Kom se net in watter biblioteek u graag sal wil werk.

Dit is belangrik om te onthou dat daar normaalweg geen vergoeding betaal word vir hierdie ervaringsdiens nie.

3.2 Onderbroke praktykervaring

3.2.1 Uitstalwerk

In u tweede studiejaar word een of meer groepsuitstallings deur die studente hanteer. Dit vind plaas onder toesig van die vakinligtingsbeampte wat vir die uitstalling aanspreeklik is.

3.2.2 In u finale studiejaar doen u onderbroke praktykervaring in periodes van 2-5 uur by die Biblioteekdiens van die U.O.V.S. Dit sal gereel word om by u rooster in te pas.

3.3 Waarnemingsbesoeke : Studietoer

Soos in die jaarboek aangedui, word daar in u vierde studiejaar 'n weeklange toer onderneem na 'n groot sentrum soos Johannesburg en/of Pretoria. Tydens hierdie besoeke sal u kennis maak met 'n verskeidenheid fasette van biblioteek- en inligtingswerk om so 'n duideliker beeld van die praktyk te verkry.

4. Evaluering

Tydens die verskillende fases van praktykervaring sal u prestasie in die werksituasie op verskillende wyses geëvalueer word:

4.1 Ononderbroke ervaringsdiens

Tydens u drie weke-praktykervaring stel u 'n verslag saam volgens die riglyne wat verskaf word deur die Departement. Hiervoor word 'n punt toegeken wat deel vorm van u semestersyfer. 'n Verslag oor u werk word ook deur die gasheerbiblioteek aan die Departement gestuur.

4.2 Onderbroke ervaringsdiens

4.2.1 Uitstalwerk

'n Evalueringsvorm word deur die betrokke inligtingsbeampte voltooi oor sowel die projek as geheel as die aandeel van elke individuele student. 'n Groepsbespreking word deur die studentegroep gehou oor die rol van uitstalwerk binne die konteks van bemarkingskommunikasie.

4.2.2 Diens in die Universiteitsbiblioteek

Tydens die onderbroke ervaringsdiens word evalueringsvorme voltooi deur die toesighoudende personeellede van die universiteitsbiblioteek. U voltooi ook 'n opdrag wat voor die periode van praktykervaring aan u gegee word.

4.3 Waarnemingsbesoeke

Informele evaluering geskied direk na elke besoek.

U kan uit hierdie dokument aflei dat die praktykervaring 'n baie belangrike deel vorm van u afronding as toekomstige professionele lid van die beroep. Dit sal egter van u eie positiewe gesindheid afhang hoeveel u daaruit gaan put.

Ek is oortuig daarvan dat u dit baie gaan geniet om met die praktyk kennis te maak!

Vriendelike groete

.....

EVALUERING VAN PRAKTYKERVARING

Let Wel: Hierdie inligting is vertroulik. Besorg asseblief die vorm of persoonlik of per verseelde koevert aan die Biblioteekpersoneelbeampste.

1. ALGEMENE BESONDERHEDE

Student: Tydperk:
Kursus: Afdeling/Seksie:
Toesighouer: Handtekening:

2. ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING(S)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3. EVALUERING (volgens beoordelingskaal in par 5)

3.1 Take verrig

Beoordeling (%)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Gemiddeld

2.2 Persoonlike eienskappe

OMSKRYWING

Beoor-
deling

VERANDWOORDELIKHEID

Pligsbesef t.o.v. uitvoering vantake; belang stelling in werk; oplettendheid; entoesiasme; gretigheid om te leer, volledige afhandeling van take; toegewydheid; stiptelikheid

INSIG

Visie en logiese denke; skerpsinnigheid; snelheid van begrip; vermoë om kennis te benut en toe te pas; situasies te ontleed; te begryp en tot 'n gevolgtrekking te raak; oplossings vir probleme te vind; verbeterings voor te stel

MENSEVERHOUDINGS

Vermoë om goeie menseverhoudings met medestudente, personeel en publiek te bewerkstellig en te handhaaf; leiereienskappe; ander kenmerke soos selfvertroue, takt, onpartydige en objektiewe optrede

ORGANISASIE

Vermoë om uitvoering van take stelselmatig te beplan vir maksimum produksie en minimum tyds- en energiebesteding, koördinering van werksaamhede; ordelike en sistematiese werkwyse

PRODUKTIWITEIT

Hoeveelheid werk binne bepaalde tyd gelewer - ingewikkeldheid en gehalte inaggenome; korrektheid; ywer; volharding; dryfkrag; doelgerigtheid

GEMIDDELD

2. OPMERKINGS

Persoonlike eienskappe (Kyk definisies in par 6)

EIENSKAP	BEOORDELING
Verantwoordelikheid	
Insig	
Menseverhoudings	
Organisasie	
Produktiwiteit	

4. OPMERKINGS

.....

.....

.....

5. BEOORDELINGSKAAL

ONDERGEMIDDELD	GEMIDDELD	BOGEMIDDELD
1. Onaanvaarbaar (0 - 19%)	4. Aanvaarbaar (40 - 49%)	7. Bogemiddeld (70 - 79%)
2. Swak (20 - 29%)	5. Bevredigend (50 - 59%)	8. Uitstekend (80 - 89%)
3. Ondergemiddeld (30 - 39%)	6. Goed (60 - 69%)	9. Uitstaande (90 - 99%)

4. BEOORDELINGSKAAL

Ondergemiddeld		Gemiddeld		Bogemiddeld	
1 Onaanvaarbaar	(0-19%)	4 Aanvaarbaar	(40-49%)	7 Bogemiddeld	(70-79%)
2 Swak	(20-29%)	5 Bevredigend	(50-59%)	8 Uitstekend	(80-89%)
3 Ondergemid	(30-39%)	6 Goed	(60-69%)	9 Uitstaande	(90-99%)

HANDTEKENING

DATUM

6. DEFINISIES VAN PERSOONLIKE EIENSKAPPE

Verantwoordelikheid: Pligsbesef ten opsigte van uitvoering van take; belangstelling in werk; oplettendheid; entoesiasme; gretigheid om te leer; volledige afhandeling van take; toegewydheid; stiptelikheid.

Insig: Visie en logiese denke; skerpsinnigheid; snelheid van begrip; vermoë om kennis te benut en toe te pas; situasies te ontleed, te begryp en tot 'n gevolgtrekking te raak; oplossings vir probleme te vind; verbeterings voor te stel.

Menseverhoudings: Vermoë om goeie menseverhoudings met medestudente, personeel en publiek te bewerkstellig en te handhaaf; leiereienskappe; ander kenmerke soos selfvertroue, takt, onpartydige en objektiewe optrede.

Organisasie: Vermoë om uitvoering van take stelselmatig te beplan vir maksimum produksie en minimum tyds- en energiebesteding; koördinering van werksaamhede; ordelike en sistematiese werkwyse.

Produktiwiteit: Hoeveelheid werk binne bepaalde tyd gelewer - ingewikkeldheid en gehalte inaggenome; korrektheid; ywer; volharding; dryfkrag; doelgerigtheid.

RIGLYNE VIR DIE PRAKTYKERVERINGSVERSLAG

Tydens u praktykervaring maak u kennis met verskillende aspekte van die beroepspraktyk. Dit is belangrik dat u daaglikse sekere aantekeninge sal maak om die opstel van u verslag te vergemaklik.

Hou die volgende in gedagte:

- * daar word vir die verslag 'n punt toegeken wat deel sal vorm van u semestersyfer vir BIB 325;
- * die uiterlike voorkoms, netheid inhoud en uitleg van die verslag is belangrik;
- * goeie taalgebruik is 'n vereiste;
- * voorbeelde, foto's, koerantberigte en ander interessantheide met byskrifte kan gebruik word om die waarde van u verslag te verhoog;
- * u eerlike waarneming en mening is van groot belang en word as vertroulik beskou.

DATUM VAN INDIENING: AUGUSTUS

INHOUD VAN DIE VERSLAG

1 INLEIDING

Voorsien die verslag van 'n inleiding waarin u interessantheide van die spesifieke biblioteek meld, byvoorbeeld die naam van die biblioteek, hoe oud dit is, die doelstellings, bydrae wat die biblioteek aan die gemeenskap lewer, deur wie dit gefinansier word, ensovoorts.

2 PERSONEEL

Gee 'n uiteensetting van die postestruktuur van die biblioteek, die getal personeellede en dui aan waar u oral gewerk het. U kan 'n diagram gebruik.

3 OPENBARE BETREKKINGE

- 3.1 Bespreek die wyse waarop openbare betrekkinge in die biblioteek hanteer word.
- 3.2 Skenk veral aandag aan al die middele en metodes van kommunikasie met die verskillende gebruikersgroepe. Voorbeelde kan hier nuttig gebruik word.

4 ORGANISASIE

- 4.1 Op watter wyse is die biblioteek in substelsels georganiseer? (gebruik 'n diagram om te verduidelik).
- 4.2 Word die rekenaar in die biblioteek gebruik en op watter wyse?

5 SAMEWERKING

- 5.1 Watter samewerking bestaan daar tussen biblioteke op plaaslike en streeksvlak?
- 5.2 How word interbiblioteeklenings deur die biblioteek hanteer?

6 DIENSTE AAN ONTWIKKELENDE GEMEENSAPPE EN MINDERHEIDSGROEPE

Bestaan daar dienste aan anderskleuriges en minderheidsgroepe in die omgewing en hoe funksioneer die?

7 BIBLIOTEEKGEBOU

Bespreek die biblioteekgebou waarin u gewerk het in terme van die vereistes wat aan 'n doelmatige biblioteekgebou gestel word.

8 EVALUERING

- 8.1 Op watter wyse word die biblioteek se dienste geevalueer?
- 8.2 Bestaan daar enige programme vir gebruikersopleiding?
- 8.3 Hoe word die gebruikers se behoeftes vasgestel?

9 BEGROTING

- 9.1 Wat kan u uitvind omtrent die biblioteek se begroting? Byvoorbeeld waar kom die geld vandaan? Hoe word dit verdeel presentasiege wys? Hoe gaan die bibliotekaris(esse) te werk wanneer die begroting opgestel word? Waarvoor moet daar voorsiening gemaak word?

LESERKUNDE

10 Keuringsbeleid (ten opsigte van sentrale Provinsiale Biblioteekdiens)

- 10.1 Stel vas of die diens 'n amptelike keuringsbeleid opgestel het. Indien wel:

- * wie was daarvoor verantwoordelik
- * vergelyk die keuringsbeleid met die algemene kenmerke van sodanige beleidsformulerings wat teoreties behandel is.

10.2 Let op die verdeling van die begroting, veral met die oog op:

- * oudio-visuele materiaal;
- * Afrikaanse en Engelse materiaal;
- * ander tale;
- * die streke; en
- * die openbare biblioteke van Bloemfontein en Welkom.

11 KEURING

11.1 Noteer die keuringsprosedure en let veral op:

- * die hantering van kopieë wat op sig voorgele word;
- * hoe word bestellings tussen verskillende handelaars versprei;
- * die rol van streekbibliotekaris;
- * die rol van die personeel van Welkom en Bloemfontein se openbare biblioteke;
- * die gebruik van annotasies; let op die aard van annotasies wat by keuring gebruik word;
- * OORWEEG SELF EEN BOEK EN SKRYF 'n ANNOTASIE DAAROOR.

12 OPENBARE BIBLIOTEKE WAT NIE SELF MATERIAAL KEUR NIE

12.1 Kennis van die gemeenskap

- * word daar gepoog om gemeenskapsbehoeftes te bepaal? Indien wel, hoe word dit gedoen?

12.2 Skakeling met die Provinsiale Biblioteekdiens

- * hoe word van die dienste van die Streekbiblioteek gebruik gemaak om die versameling so doeltreffend as moontlik te hou?
- * hoe word gemeenskapsbehoeftes aan die keurkomitee van die Provinsiale Biblioteekdiens oorgedra?

INLIGHTINDIENSTE

13 INLIGTINGWERKERS

13.1 Is daar inligtingwerkers op die personeel van die biblioteek?

- * Indien wel, beskryf die kenmerke van hulle werk.
- * Indien nie, wie doen inligtingwerk in die biblioteek en beskryf die aard van hulle werk in die biblioteek.

14 INLIGTINGBRONNE

14.1 Noem die verskillende tipes inligtingbronne in die biblioteek.

14.2 Beskryf die plek en rol van die algemene naslaanversameling en -diens in die biblioteek.

MAKROGRAFIESE ONTSLUITING

BESPREEK DIE VOLGENDE VRAE VOLLEDIG:

15 DIE ONTSLUITINGSAPPARAAT

15.1 Besit die biblioteek 'n ontsluitingsapparaat? Indien wel:

- * watter tipe?
- * wie stel dit saam?
- * hoe word dit saamgestel?
- * watter tipe inligting word ontsluit?
- * hoe word die inligting opgeteken? (Gee 'n voorbeeld van 'n kaart)
- * is hierdie ontsluiting voldoende?
- * bestaan daar 'n outoriteitsleer en wie stel dit saam?

Indien nie:

- * watter substitute word gebruik om die voorraad te ontsluit?
- * waarom ontsluit hulle nie self nie?
- * word die gebruikersdienste nie hierdeur benadeel nie?
- * watter tipe ontsluitingsapparaat sou u vir die biblioteek aanbeveel?
- * verduidelik waarom.

15.2 Wanneer gebruikers inligting seek, hoe vra hulle dit aan:

- * volgens outeur?
- * volgens titel?
- * volgens onderwerpe?

16 RAKRANGSIIKING

16.1 Hoe word die fiksie op die rakke gerangskik?

16.2 Is dit doeltreffend?

16.3 Hoe word die nie-fiksie op die rakke gerangskik?

16.4 Is dit doeltreffend?

16.5 Watter verbeterings kan u voorstel?

EVALUERING VAN U PRAKTYKERVARING

17 Voldoen die definisie van praktykervaring aan u ondervinding van praktykervaring:

- * het u deurentyd onder 'n professioneel gekwalifiseerde persoon gewerk?
- * is u vergoed? Indien wel, hoe is dit bereken?

18 Is die doelstellings bereik?

19 Hoe is u deur die biblioteek ontvang?

- * is u aan die personeel voorgestel?
- * hoe het hulle u tuis laat voel?
- * is u opdragte aan u verduidelik?
- * was hulle bereid om vrae te beantwoord?
- * kon u die informele organisasie waarneem?
(Daar bestaan 'n verband tussen die leiers) se
leierskapstyl(e) en die organisasiekultuur - kon u
die verband waarneem?)

20 U OPDRAGTE:

- * watter opdrag(te) het u die meeste geniet en leersaam
gevind?
- * watter opdrag(te) was vir u betekenisloos?

21 Watter veranderings sou u aan die Departement wou
voorstel om die praktykervaringstydperk te verbeter.

22 Verdere opmerkings wat u onder ons aandag wou bring.

23 Voorsien die verslag van 'n slotgedeelte wat u houding
teenoor u toekomstige beroep sal weerspieël.

.....
.....
.....
.....
Geagte kollega

PRAKTIESE BIBLIOTEEKWERK: DERDEJAARSTUDENTE

1. Dit word van die studente in Biblioteek- en Inligtingkunde vereis om drie weke per jaar (120 uur) praktiese werk in biblioteke te doen. Hierdie Departement is baie dankbaar dat baie biblioteke so vriendelik was om die afgelope aantal jare ons studente te ontvang. Dit word vertrou dat dit vir u moontlik sal wees om ons behulpzaam te wees met die skoling van ons studente.

Mnr/Mev/Mej
wil baie graag in u biblioteek werk,
van tot

2. Dit sal besonder waardeer word indien die student soveel moontlik ondervinding binne die kort tydsbestek in u biblioteek kan opdoen.

Daar bestaan die behoefte dat die student:

- * met al die basiese werkprosesse sal kennis maak;
- * 'n oorsigtelike beeld van u biblioteek se werksaamhede en organisasie sal kry;
- * as voornemende personeellid van biblioteek- of inligtingsdiens deur u geïnspireer sal word; en
- * 'n voorsmaak sal kry van al die interessante en belangrike aspekte wat die beroep aanbied.

3. Daar word van die student verwag om 'n verslag oor die praktykervaring voor te berei. Dit sal derhalwe baie waardeur word as die student in die geleentheid gestel sal word om sekere prosedures in u biblioteek te bestudeer. Indien bepaalde inligting nie deur eie waarneming vasgestel kan word nie, sal dit op prys gestel word as u of u personeel die nodige feite kan verstrek.
4. Aangeheg vind u 2 verslagvorme. Ons sal dit waardeur as u dit in konsultasie met die personeellede onder wie se toesig die student gewerk het, sal voltooi. Stuur asseblief een vorm aan ondergetekende, terwyl die duplikaat vir u eie gebruik is.
5. Indien dit onmoontlik is om die student in u biblioteek te ontvang, sal dit op prys gestel word as u ondergetekende daarvan in kennis sal stel. Enige wenke om die praktiese biblioteekwerk deur studente of die organisasie daarvan te verbeter, sal met graagte ontvang word.

U aandeel as lid van die professionele beroepspraktyk aan die vorming van toekomstige lede is van onskatbare waarde.

Vriendelike groete

Die uwe

SEKSIE AFRICANA- EN BESKERMDE VERSAMELING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die organisasie en prosedures in die Seksie Africana- en Beskermde Versameling

TAKE

1. Oorsig met betrekking tot begrip "Africana" en "Beskermde Versameling"
2. Oorsig met betrekking tot uitleen/uitreikbeleid en versamelingboubeleid
3. Uitreiking van materiaal
4. Hulpverlening by onderwerpsnavrae

ALGEMENE EN FINANSIELE ADMINISTRASIE

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te week met die interne organisasie en administrasie van die Afdeling Algemene en Finansiele Administrasie

TAKE

1. Oorsig oor betaling van fakture
2. Departementele boekhouding

ALGEMENE NASLAAN

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

- a) Om die plek en rol van die algemene naslaan- en inligtingsdiens in die Biblioteekdiens te ken
- b) Om verskillende soorte naslaanwerke te ken, te evalueer en te gebruik by die beantwoording van inligtingsnavrae

TAKE

1. Oorsig oor die funksionering van die algemene naslaanafdeling as deel van die Afdeling Inligtingsdiens
2. Waarneming en hulpverlening met betrekking tot inligtingsnavrae
3. Navrae op gerekenariseerde katalogus (ook verkorte katalogus)

SEKSIE BOEKINSAMELING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die interne organisasie en administrasie van die Seksie Boekinsameling

TAKE

1. Ontvangs en hantering van aanbevelingskaart
2. Bestel van boeke
3. Ontvangs van boeke
4. Kriteria met betrekking tot die evaluering van handelaars

'n TAK BIBLIOTEEK

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

- a) Om 'n oorsigkennis te he van die aktiwiteite van 'n inligtingsbeampte
- b) Om kennis te dra van die verskillende fisiese verskyningsvorme van inligting en media vir die oordra van inligting
- c) Om 'n gebruiker met 'n inligtingsbehoefte te kan hanteer met die oog daarop om gepubliseerde inligting op te spoor.

TAKE

1. Fisiese plasing en herwinning van inligtingsbronne.
2. Die bepaling, formulering en bevrediging van inligtingsbehoefte
 - Navraagonderhoud
 - Opspoor van bronne
 - Administratiewe take

TYDSKRIFAFDELING

Om bekend te wees met die organisasie en prosedures wat verband hou met die uitlening/uitreiking van tydskrifte.

TAKE

1. Uitlening/uitreiking van tydskrifte
2. Opsporing van tydskrifte op rakke
3. Hulpverlening by die beantwoording van navrae
4. Hulpverlening met betrekking tot fotokopieringsdienste

SEKSIE GERESERVEERDE VERSAMELING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die administrasie en bronverskaffingsprosedures by die Seksie Gereserveerde Versameling

TAKE

1. Opneem van nuwe materiaal
2. Beskikbaarstelling van inligtingsbronne
3. Statistiekhouding
4. Oorsig oor skakeling met inligtingsbeamptes

HOOFTOONBANK

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om vertrouwd te wees met die funksionering van die gerekenariseerde leenstelsel

TAKE

1. Hulpverlening met betrekking tot die uitleen en terugontvangs van materiaal
2. Oorsig met betrekking tot die volgende gerekenariseerde prosedures:
 - Ontvangs van boetegeld
 - Aanmanings
 - Besprekings
 - Navrae
 - Statistiekhouding
3. Oorsig oor die problematiek wat verband hou met die insleuteling van verkorte rekords

INLIGTINGSDIENS

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

- a) Om 'n oorsigskennis te he van die aktiwiteite van die inligtingsbeampte.
- b) Om kennis te dra van die verskillende fisiese verskyningsvorme van inligting en media vir die oordrag van inligting.
- c) Om 'n gebruiker met 'n inligtingsbehoefte te kan hanteer met die oog daarop om gepubliseerde inligting op te spoor.

TAKE

1. Oorsig oor funksies en newe-funksies
2. Fisiese plasing en herwinning van verskillende media
3. Inligtingsbehoefte te bepaal, formuleer en bevredig
 - Navraagonderhoud
 - Formulering van navraag
 - Opspoor van enkele boeke, tydskrifte en waar moontlik oudiovisuele media, INEG, ensovoorts
 - Administratiewe take soos fotokopiering
4. Aktualiteitsdiens se funksionering
 - Inhoudsopgawes
 - Sirkulering van tydskrifte

SEKSIE INTERBIBLIOTEEKLENINGS

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die interne organisasie en administrasie van die Seksie Interbiblioteeklenings

TAKE

1. Oorsig en hulpverlening met betrekking tot aanvrae ontvang en bronne versend
 - Boeke
 - Tydskrifte
2. Oorsig en hulpverlening met betrekking tot aanvrae gestuur en bronne ontvang (Doen ook navrae op SABINET)
 - Boeke
 - Tydskrifte
3. Statistiekhouding
4. Oorsig in verband met internasionale lenings veral BLLD

MUSIEKBIBLIOTEEK

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die organisasies en prosedures met die beskikbaarstelling van materiaal by die diskoteek.

TAKE

1. Oorsig met betrekking tot die verskillende media by die diskoteek.
2. Waarneming en hulpverlening by die beskikbaarstelling van materiaal en die hantering van die apparaat.
3. Oorsig oor die skakeling tussen die Musiekbiblioteek en die Inligtingsbeampte by die Hoofbiblioteek.

ONTSLUITING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om die aard en waarde van ontsluiting en ontsluitingshulpmiddele te ken en verstaan.

1. MAKRO-ONTSLUITING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om vertrouwd te wees met die beginsels, prosedures en probleme by die makro-ontsluiting van inligtingsbronne, en die aard en waarde van sistematiese onderwerpsontsluiting te ken.

TAKE

1. Eenvoudige alfabetiese onderwerpsontsluiting deur middel van die saakhoofdele.
2. Stel 'n eenvoudige alfabetiese ontsluitingsapparaat saam.
3. Sistematiese onderwerpsontsluiting deur middel van DDK

2. VOORONTSLUITING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om die aard en waarde van bibliografiese ontsluiting van bronne te ken.

TAKE

1. Beskryf rekords bibliografies aan die hand van AACRII
2. Kodering
3. Neem kennis van die datavasleggingsprosedures
4. Bibliografiese verifiëring op SABINET

3. ONTSLUITING VAN OUDIOVISUELE MATERIAAL

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om die aard en waarde van bibliografiese ontsluiting van bronne te ken met betrekking tot die ontsluiting van oudiovisuele bronne

TAKE

1. Bibliografiese beskrywing van oudiovisuele materiaal aan die hand van AACRII
2. Kodeer
3. Sistematiese onderwerpsontsluiting aan die hand van DDK

SEKSIE TYDSKRIFINSAMELING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die interne organisasie en administrasie van die Seksie Tydskrifinsameling

TAKE

1. Ontvangs en kontrolering van aansoeke vir tydskrifintekenings
2. Aanteken van nuwe tydskrifnommers op kardex
3. Aanmanings
4. Navrae op gerekenariseerde tydskrifkatalogus
5. Nuwe ontwikkelinge

UDIOVISUELE AFDELING

ONDERRIGDOELSTELLING

Om bekend te wees met die organisasie en prosedures in die seksie Oudiovisuele Afdeling

TAKE

1. Oorsig en hulpverlening met betrekking tot die volgende take
 - uitreiking en uitlening van Oudiovisuele materiaal
 - bestelling van programmatuur op bruikleen vanaf ander instansies
 - INEG soektogte
 - bestelprosedures van Oudiovisuele programmatuur

PRAKTYKERVARING

EVALUERING DEUR DIE STUDENT

Die verbetering van die gehalte van 'n program hang grootliks af van die eerlike menings van die deelnemers oor die behoeftebevrediging wat hul ervaar tydens die program. 'n Vriendelike versoek word tot u gerig om u mening by elke vraag te verstrek. U eerlike mening is belangrik.

AFDELING/SEKSIE _____

TOESIGHOUER _____

AANTAL URE GEWERK _____

1. Is die doelstellings bereik? _____

2. Indien nee, waaraan sou u dit toeskryf? _____

3. Wat was die waarde van die werk in hierdie afdeling/seksie vir u? _____

4. Watter negatiewe indrukke het u hier ervaar? _____

5. Enige verdere opmerkings wat u graag onder die aandag wil bring: _____

DATUM _____

RIGLYNE: PRAKTYKERVARING

1. INLEIDING

Die Biblioteekdiens van die het as deurlopende doelwit onder andere die volgende:

Die handhawing van noue bande met die Departement Biblioteek- and Inligtingkunde aan die UOVS ter wille van die wedersydse bevrugting van teorie en praktyk, die nastrewing van 'n interne akademies-wetenskaplike karakter vir die Biblioteekdiens, die bevordering van navorsing op die gebied van die biblioteek- and inligtingkunde en die opleiding van professionele kollegas.

Ten opsigte van die opleiding van professionele kollegas vereenselwig die Biblioteekdiens homself ook met die Riglyne van Gasheerinstansies, soos vervat in the Riglyne vir Praktykervaring wat deur 'n subkomitee van die KON van SAIBI saamgestel is.

2. DIE BEGRIP: PRAKTYKERVARING

Met die koms van 'n meer wetenskaplike benadering tot die aangeleentheid word die begrip praktykervaring nou verkies bo die vroeere term praktiese werk.

Prof P A van Brakel omskryf die begrip soos volg:

Praktykervaring vir die B Bibl-graadkursus is ondervinding wat die student in die praktyd opdoen sodra en wanneer die betrokke onderrigdoelstellings en leerinhoud sodanige ervarings noodsaak. As onderrigmetode kan dit, afhangende van die lesingfase, voor of na leerstofverowering en onder toesig van die praktisyn plaasvind. Die keuse oor waar praktykervaring verrig word, word bepaal deur die biblioteek of inligtingsdiens wat die student die beste geleentheid sal bied om verowerde leerinhoud in te oefen, of hom daartoe te orienteer.

Die doelwitte van praktykervaring is:

1. om praktiese ondervinding van daaglikse biblioteekroetines en -aktiwiteite op te doen;
2. om 'n globale oorsig te verkry oor 'n verskeidenheid van biblioteek- en inligtingsverskaffingstelsels.

Aan die ander kant help praktykervaring die beroep en in die besonder die gasheerinstansie om: 1. 'n voorlopige evaluering te maak van potensiele toekomstige kandidate, en 2. die spesifieke talente van studente te help ontdek

sodat hulle ook daardeur gehelp kan word om waardevolle diens te lewer binne 'n kort tyd nadat hulle begin werk het as gevolg van die gespesialiseerde ondervinding wat hulle opgedoen het tydens hul praktykervaringsperiodes.

Hoewel dit moeilik is om 'n student te evalueer wat net vir 'n dag of 'n paar uur by 'n afdeling gewerk het, kry die student 'n globale oorsig oor die verskeidenheid take wat by die onderskeie afdelings en dienspunte verrig word. Dit kan help om by hulle 'n groter bewustheid te kweek van die omvang en betekenis van hedendaagse biblioteek- en inligtingsdienste. Daarom is dit vir die personeel belangrik om die studente te laat welkom voel en om soveel as moontlik te doen om aan hulle insigte te gee in professionele sowel as nie-professionele take. Dit is belangrik om die praktykervaringsprogram relatief eenvoudig te hou. Dit moet dus goed beplan en doelgerig uitgevoer word.

3. DIE RIGLYNE VAN DIE KON

In 1984 het 'n subkomitee van die Komitee vir Opleiding en Navorsing die volgende riglyne saamgestel wat deur alle takke van SAIBI aanvaar is.

4. PRAKTIESE REELINGS

Daar word van die gasherinstansie verwag om sekere praktiese reelings vooraf, tydens die betrokke periode en daarna te tref. Na aanleiding van die riglyne vir Gasheerinstansies is die volgende reelings van belang:

- 4.1 Die Adjunk-direkteur Gebruikersdienste is die skakelpersoon tussen die -Biblioteekdiens en die opleidinginstansies.
- 4.2 'n Profiel van leergeleenthede word vervat in die onderrigdoelstellings en take vir die afdelings (sien bylaes 1 - 13).
- 4.3 'n Werkprogram word vooraf opgestel en aan alle betrokkenes gestuur sodat kennis geneem kan word van die periodes wat die studente in hul afdelings sal wees.
- 4.4 Die geleenthede wat geskep word om verworwe kennis prakties uit te voer is die verantwoordelikheid van elke afdelings- of seksiehoof en daar word aanbeveel dat students
 - waar moontlik direk in die bree werksituasie geplaas word om met die realiteit van die praktyd direk kennis te maak;
 - relatief eenvoudige werksprobleme en -situasies gegee word om op te los of te hanteer;

- aangemoedig word om vrae te stel waar en wanneer die behoefte daartoe ontstaan;
- vooraf deur die afdelingshoof ingelig word oor die plek van die betrokke afdeling in die organisasie en oor al die take in die afdeling.

4.5 Die evaluering van die studente word behartig deur die spesifieke toesighouer van elke student en word gedokumenteer op evalueringsvorm B134 (voorbeeld aangeheg as bylae 14). Die betrokke onderrigdoelstelling en take (bylaes 1 - 13) word deurgaans as uitgangspunt gebruik by evaluering.

5. TERUGVOERING

Nadat die praktykervaringsperiode verby is, word 'n samespreking gereel waarby die volgende teenwoordig is:

- die betrokke studente
- die betrokke personeellid van die Departement Biblioteek- en Inligtingkunde
- die Adjunk-direkteur Gebruikersdienste van die Biblioteekdiens
- afdelingshoofde (waar nodig)

Die doel van die terugvoeringsessie is

- om te bepaal of die doel van praktykervaring bereik is;
- om aandag te skenk aan die opmerkings of aanbevelings van die studente
- om verdere toeligting te verskaf waar nodig

VRAELYS : PRAKTYKERVARING

Hierdie vraelys is 'n bestanddeel van 'n doktorale navorsingsprojek onderneem deur Mary Nassimbeni onder beskerming van die Universiteit Kaapstad se Skool vir Biblioteekwese. Die doel van die vraelys is om inligting te verkry oor u ervarings, gedagtes en ingesteldhede met betrekking tot u praktykervaringsprogram. Die beantwoording van die vraelys sal u die geleentheid bied om daardie program te evalueer en om u mening uit te spreek oor die plek en waarde van praktykervaring as deel van u opleiding. Anonimiteit sal streng gehandhaaf word. U response sal dus op geen wyse u eksamenuitslae beïnvloed of u verhouding met òf die Departement Biblioteek- en Inligtingkunde òf die biblioteke en inligtingsentra waar u u praktykervaringssessies deurgemaak het, vertroebel nie. U deelname is vrywillig.

Deel A

In hierdie deel van die vraelys word gepoog om u menings van die praktykervaringsprogram in die geheel te bepaal. U response behoort u indrukke oor die praktykervaringsprogram as komponent van die volle opleidingsprogram te weerspieël.

DUI ASSEBLIF U MENING MET BETREKKING TOT ELK VAN DIE STELLINGE
AAN DEUR 'N KRING TE TREK OM DIE TOEPASLIKE SIMBOOL

SS WANNEER U STERK SAAMSTEM

S WANNEER U SAAMSTEM

O WANNEER U ONSEKER IS

V WANNEER U VERSKIL

SV WANNEER U SKERP VERSKIL

1. Na my mening is my tyd en moeite

goed bestee aan hierdie leerervaring SS S O V SV

2. Die praktykervaringsprogram het

my in staat gestel om beginsels in

in die praktyk aan te wend SS S O V SV

3. Die program was 'n betreklik

nuttelose leerervaring SS S O V SV

4. Die program het geleentheid vir

my geskep om kommunikasievaardighede

te ontwikkel en toe te pas SS S O V SV

5. Ek is nou in staat om die leerstof-

inhoud van die opleidingskursus in

die geheel binne 'n breër perspektief

te sien SS S O V SV

6. Die praktykervaringsprogram was

'n betekenisvolle leerervaring SS S O V SV

7. Die program het my gehelp om 'n
nuwe benadering tot die leerproses
te ontwikkel

SS S O V SV

8. Ek voel dat ek nou baie meer
bewus is van gebruikersbehoefte in
biblioteke/inligtingsentra

SS S O V SV

9. Ek sou graag meer tyd aan die
praktykervaringsprogram wou bestee

SS S O V SV

10. Die program het my gehelp om 'n
grondige begrip van die biblioteek-
en inligtingkunde te vorm

SS S O V SV

11. Indien praktykervaring 'n
opsionele komponent van die kursus
was, sou ek verkies het om nie
daaraan deel te neem nie

SS S O V SV

12. Die program het my gehelp om
die teoretiese en praktiese aspekte
van die kursus te integreer

SS S O V SV

13. Deelname aan die program het
weinig verskil aan my gedoen

SS S O V SV

14. Ek het tydens my praktykervaring
geleer om 'n begrip te vorm van nuwe
en verskillende gesigspunte

SS S O V SV

15. Die praktykervaringsprogram het
my in staat gestel om my eie
inisiatief te gebruik

SS S O V SV

16. Studente wat praktykervaring
opdoen, word ingespan om goedkoop
arbeid te verrig

SS S O V SV

17. Praktykervaring het my klas-
onderrig meer tersaaklik laat voorkom

SS S O V SV

18. Ek het meer vertrouwe in myself
en my vermoëns verkry deur praktyk-
ervaring

SS S O V SV

19. Die praktykervaringsprogram behoort
uit die kursus onttrek te word

SS S O V SV

20. Die praktykervaringsprogram het
onafhanklike denke aangemoedig

SS S O V SV

21. Die program was 'n uitdagende
leerervaring

SS S O V SV

22. My praktykervaring het geen ver-
band getoon met my leerbehoefte nie

SS S O V SV

23. Ek het beroepsvaardighede ont-
wikkel wat nodig is in biblioteek-
en inligtingswerk

SS S O V SV

24. Ek het sterker bewus geword van
praktiese probleme verbonde aan
biblioteek- en inligtingswerk

SS S O V SV

25. Praktykervaring is minder nuttig
as die ander kursuskomponente

SS S O V SV

26. My eie leerdoelwitte is
verwesenlik deur middel van
die praktykervaringsprogram

SS S O V SV

27. Ek stel meer belang in die
kursus in sy geheel vanweë my
praktykervaring

SS S O V SV

Deel B

Die doel van hierdie afdeling is om u menings oor bepaalde aspekte van u praktykervaring tydens die program te verkry.

BEANTWOORD ASSEBLIEF ELKE VRAAG OF STELLING DEUR 'N KRING TE MAAK OM DIE RESPONSKEUSES WAT GEBIED WORD. VOEG ASSEBLIEF NA GOEDDUNKE ENIGE TOEPASLIKE VERDUIDELIKINGS, VOORBEHOUDE OF ALGEMENE OPMERKINGS ('N STELLING OF VRAAG MAG BYVOORBEELD GELDIG WEES TEN OPSIGTE VAN EEN OF MEER INSTANSIES MAAR NIE VAN ANDER NIE).

1. Ek is aangemoedig om menings en konstruktiewe kritiek te opper oor die gasheerinrigting, die afdeling of die tak waarna ek verwys is

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

2. Het praktykervaring u mening oor die werksaamhede van 'n bibliotekaris/inligtingswerker laat verander ?

- Ja
- Nee
- Onseker

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

3. Het die praktykervaringsprogram tot u bevrediging lig gewerp op die volgende beroepsaspekte ? MAAK ASSEBLIEF 'N KRING OM 'JA', 'NEE' OF 'ONSEKER'

(a) Heersende biblioteek- en

inligtingspraktyk

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(b) Beroepsvooruitsigte

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(c) Bestuurspraktyk en -styl

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(d) Die organisasie van biblioteke/

inligtingsentra

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(e) Verhoudinge tussen

biblioteke/inligtingsentra en

hul gebruikers

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(f) Verband tussen teorie en

praktyk

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(g) Verband tussen die biblioteek-

en inligtingkunde en ander

akademiese terreine (bv.

sosiologie en sielkunde)

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(h) Gebruikersbehoefte

en -gedrag

Ja

Nee

Onseker

(i) Beroepswaardes	Ja	Nee	Onseker
(j) Praktiese vaardighede	Ja	Nee	Onseker
(k) Inligtingstegnologie	Ja	Nee	Onseker

4. Het die praktykervaringsprogram enige invloed uitgeoefen op u beroepsplanne ?

- Ja
- Nee
- Onseker

BREI ASSEBLIEF HIEROP UIT

5. Het praktykervaring aan u verwagtinge voldoen ?

- Ja
- Nee
- Onseker

VERSKAF ASSEBLIEF REDES

6. Het die kursus in sy geheel aan u verwagtinge voldoen ?

- Ja
- Nee
- Onseker

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

7. Vanweë die praktykervaringsprogram is ek meer positief teenoor my gekose beroep ingestel

- Ja
- Nee
- Onseker

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

8. Hoe sou u die toesighouding tydens u praktykervaringsprogram na waarde skat ? PLAAS 'N KRING OM EEN RESPONS

- In die algemeen bevredigend
- Soms bevredigend
- Soms onbevredigend
- In die algemeen onbevredigend

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

9. Ek het 'n helder beeld gehad van wat daar van my verwag is tydens die praktykervaringsprogram

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms

BREI ASSEBLIEF HIEROP UIT

10. Welke term weergee u evaluering van die praktykervaringsprogram die noukeurigste ? PLAAS 'N KRING OM EEN TERM

- Voortreflik
- Goed
- Toereikend
- Swak
- Baie swak
- Ander (DUI AAN)

BREI ASSEBLIEF OP U ANTWOORD UIT

11. Die praktykervaringsprogram is goed georganiseer deur die betrokke gasheerinrigtings

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms

BREI ASSEBLIEF HIEROP UIT

12. Indien u u eie prestasie in die praktykervaringsprogram na waarde sou skat, hoe sou u dit beskryf ? PLAAS 'N KRING OM EEN ANTWOORD

- Baie geslaag
- Geslaag
- Misluk
- Erg misluk
- Onseker

LIG ASSEBLIEF U ANTWOORD TOE DEUR 'N REDE (OF REDES) VIR U WAARDEBEPALING TE VERSTREK

13. Wat beskou u as die grootste leemte (of hoofleemtes) in die praktykervaringsprogram ?

14. Wat beskou u as die heilsaamste kenmerk (of heilsaamste kenmerke) van die praktykervaringsprogram ?.....

15. Waarvan het u die meeste gehou toe u praktykervaring opgedoen het ?

16. Waarvan het u die minste gehou tydens die praktykervaring ?

17. Welke terme besrkyf die werk - in die algemene sin - wat u tydens die praktykervaringsprogram moes verrig ? PLAAS 'N KRING OM EEN TERM IN ELK VAN DIE VIER STELLE

- Te veel
- Bevredigend
- Te min

- Interessant
- Vervelend
- Beide

- Te maklik
- Bevredigend
- Te moeilik

- Afwisselend
- Herhalend
- Beide

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

18. Hoë prestasiestandaarde is gestel

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms
- Onseker

VERDUIDELIK ASSEBLIEF

19. Die doelstellinge en vereistes van die praktykervaringsprogram is duidelik en uitdruklik gestel deur die Departement Biblioteek- en Inligtingkunde

- Ja
- Nee
- Gedeeltelik

BREI ASSEBLIEF HIEROP UIT

20. Die toesighoudende bibliotekaris(se) het spesifieke aanduidinge gegee van die wyse waarop ek my werksaamhede kon verbeter

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms

BREI ASSEBLIEF HIEROP UIT

21. Ek het gevoel ek is gemotiveer om my bes te doen

- Ja
- Nee
- Soms

VERSKAF ASSEBLIEF 'N REDE OF REDES TER TOELIGTING

22. Hoe sou u die tydsberekening van die praktykervaringsessies na waarde skat ?

- Bevredigend
- Onbevredigend
- Onseker

VERSKAF ASSEBLIEF 'N REDE OF REDES TER TOELIGTING

23. Indien praktykervaring uit die kursus onttrek sou word, hoe sou u die kursus beskou ?

- As meer aangenaam
- As minder aangenaam
- Onseker

- As meer nuttig
- As minder nuttig
- Onseker

- As meer interessant
- As minder interessant
- Onseker

- As dieselfde
- As anders
- Onseker

MAAK ASSEBLIEF EEN KRING BY ELKE ANTWOORDPAAR

24. Die volgende word aan die hand gedoen as moontlike doelstellinge in 'n ideële praktykervaringsprogram. DUI ASSEBLIEF BY ELKE DOELSTELLING 'N WAARDESKATTING VAN SY BELANGRIKHEIDSGRAAD AAN DEUR 'N KRING TE TREK OM DIE SYFER WAT NA U MENING DIE TOEPASLIKE BELANGRIKHEIDSGRAAD VERTEENWOORDIG.

(SKAAL : 5 = BAIE BELANGRIK

4 = BELANGRIK

3 = REDELIK BELANGRIK

2 = ONBELANGRIK

1 = NIE 'N AANNEEMLIKE DOELSTELLING NIE)

(a) Om vertroue in te boesem	1	2	3	4	5
------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---

(b) Om basiese tegniese vaardighede uit te voer	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

(c) Om leerstof wat in klasonderrig aangebied word, tasbaar toe te lig	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

(d) Om studente vertrouwd te maak met die hulpmiddele en die daaglikse roetines van biblioteek- en inligtingswerk	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

(e) Om beroepsingesteldhede te help kweek	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

(f) Om die verband tussen die teorie en die praktyk te lê	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

(g) Om vaardighede ter oplossing van probleme te ontwikkel	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

(h) Om kommunikasievaardighede te beoefen	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

(i) Om onafhanklike denke te help bevorder	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

(j) Om meer kennis op te doen
aangaande die organisasie van
biblioteke en inligtingsentra

1 2 3 4 5

(k) Om afwisseling binne die
program van formele onderrig te bied

1 2 3 4 5

(l) Om goeie praktykbeoefening waar
te neem

1 2 3 4 5

(m) Om goeie bibliotekarisse en
inligtingswerkers in die praktyk
dop te hou

1 2 3 4 5

(n) Om verskeidenheid in doseer-
metodes te bied

1 2 3 4 5

(o) Om studente bloot te stel aan
'n verskeidenheid werkomgewings

1 2 3 4 5

(p) Om beroepskontak vir studente
te bevorder

1 2 3 4 5

(q) Om studente se beroeps-
geskiktheid te toets

1 2 3 4 5

(r) Om kennis op te doen oor
gebruikersbehoefte en -gedrag

1 2 3 4 5

(s) Om die praktiese vermoëns van

studente te toets

1 2 3 4 5

25. Wil u enigiets aan die hand doen met betrekking tot wyses waarop die praktykervaringsprogram verbeter kan word ?.....

26. Indien daar enige aangeleentheid verbonde aan die praktykervaringsprogram is wat nie in die vraelys gedek word nie, maar waarop u graag kommentaar sou wou lewer, gebruik asseblief die ruimte wat volg om u gedagtes daaroor uit te spreek .

Naam :

Studiekursus :

Vlak :

KONTROLEER ASSEBLIEF DAT U AL DIE VRAE BEANTWOORD HET

BAIE DANKIE VIR U SAMEWERKING

APPENDIX 19

23 May 1988

The Librarian

Dear Colleague

I should be grateful if you would pass on this questionnaire to the member of your staff who is involved as co-ordinator or supervisor of fieldwork in your institution. The comments and opinions will be invaluable to me in the research (for a Ph.D.) I am conducting into the role and value of fieldwork in professional education for library and information science. I should also appreciate it if I could be sent any documentation (e.g. guidelines to supervisors) regarding the fieldwork programme in your institution. I should be pleased if the completed questionnaire could be returned to me by 20 June. Thank you.

Yours sincerely

Mary Nassimbeni (Mrs)

Lecturer in library and information science

QUESTIONNAIRE : FIELDWORK

SUPERVISORS AND CO-ORDINATORS OF FIELDWORK PROGRAMMES AT HOST INSTITUTIONS

The following questions are intended to elicit the thinking and opinions of supervisors and co-ordinators of fieldwork programmes in libraries and information centres. The questionnaire forms part of research for a Ph.D. degree being done at the University of Cape Town (School of Librarianship) by Mary Nassimbeni. Strict anonymity will be maintained.

1. How important is fieldwork in professional education for library and information science ?
2. Why is your institution prepared to accept fieldwork students ?
3. What are the aims and objectives of fieldwork ?
4. What sort of activities do you believe can achieve these aims and objectives ?
5. What are the most serious obstacles to achieving these aims and objectives ?
6. What is your opinion regarding the most appropriate methods of assessing fieldwork students' performance during the fieldwork programme ?

7. What is (or should be) the role of the library school in the fieldwork programme ?
8. How do you see your role and functions as co-ordinator (or supervisor) in the fieldwork programme ?
9. Can students make a contribution to the host institution during the fieldwork programme ? If so, please elaborate your answer :
10. List some of the strengths and qualities which were characteristic of the students on fieldwork whom you thought were successful:
11. List any advice you would like to give prospective fieldwork students :
12. How do you think the fieldwork programme might be improved ?
13. If you would like to discuss any aspect of the fieldwork programme that has not been covered by this questionnaire, please do so in the space provided

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

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